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LIBRARIES IN ADULT AND FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

The Report of the Malmö Seminar

by

CYRIL O. HOULE

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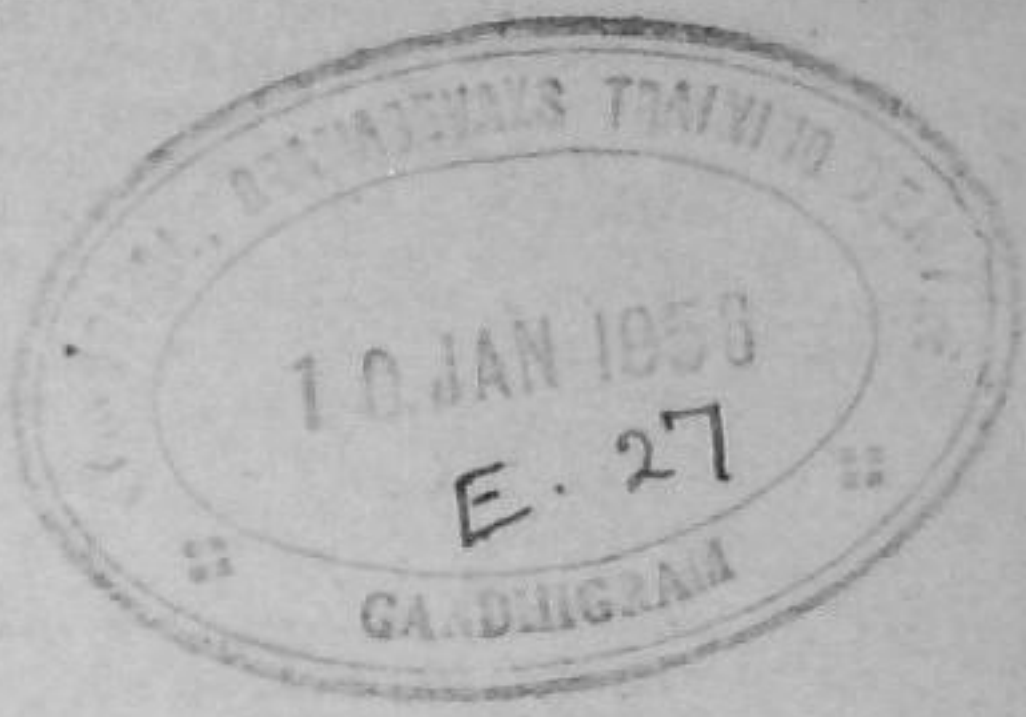


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UNESCO PUBLIC LIBRARY MANUALS. 4

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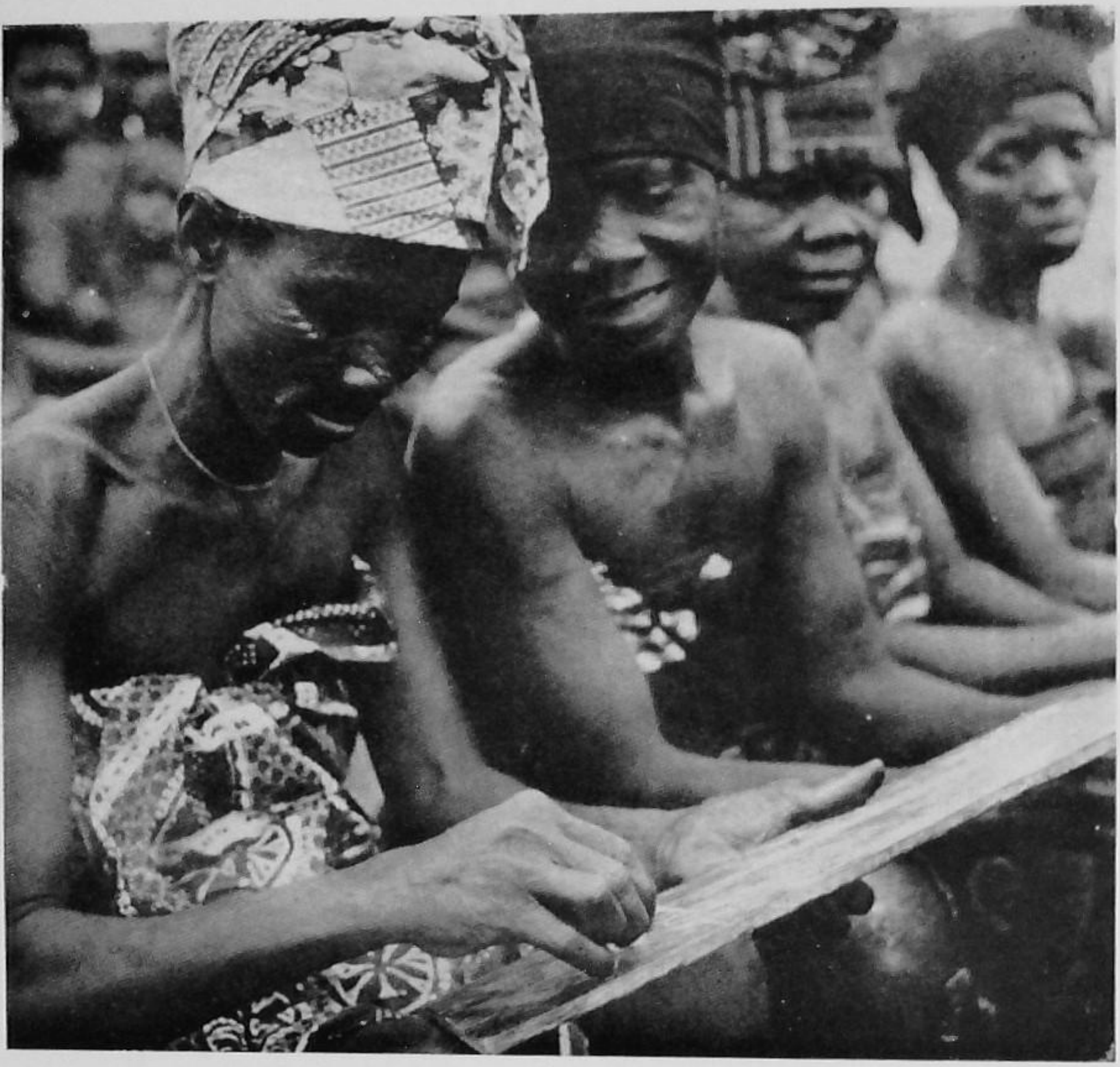
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Development of Public Libraries in Latin America. The São Paulo Conference



Half the world is illiterate and without library service.

LIBRARIES IN ADULT AND FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

The Report of the Malmö Seminar

by

CYRIL O. HOULE
Director of the Seminar

Incorporating Reports Prepared by Yvonne Oddon,
Lachlan F. MacRae and Others

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FOREWORD

ONE of the most crucial problems facing the world today is the education of adults, including the millions without formal schooling who must continue learning if they are to play well their part in shaping our ever-changing world. Many agencies are working to solve this problem, but few have the potentialities of public libraries. I believe therefore that Unesco must do everything in its power to stimulate the creation and development of effective library services to adult education, thereby giving the great masses of the world the opportunity for self-education, which they need and deserve.

An important step in Unesco's continuing library programme was a Seminar on The Role of Libraries in Adult Education, *held in Malmö, Sweden, in the summer of* 1950. *It was markedly successful, and much of the credit is due to the Seminar Director, Dr. Cyril O. Houle, Dean of University College, the University of Chicago, who combines a vast knowledge of libraries and adult education. The present volume, the fourth in the series of* Public Library Manuals, *is one of the first results of that meeting. The main report in it was written by Dr. Houle, who also edited and integrated the other contributions. The book embodies the thinking of all members of the Seminar, participants and staff, and of other experts in many countries. I am confident that it will be of great practical value to librarians and will also help government officials and educators responsible for planning library services and adult education. Those interested in the techniques of seminar organization and operation will also find useful information in this manual.*

A seminar is not an end in itself : its real effectiveness can be judged only by its results. Future action by the participants of the Malmö Seminar has been well provided for, and I am confident that this book will help to bring the influence of the seminar to bear on others who were unable to participate in the Malmö meeting.

JAIME TORRES BODET,
Director-General.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Many people have contributed to the preparation of this report, which is, in effect, the collaborative effort of everyone who attended the Malmö Seminar. I have done my best to give credit to individuals and groups at the appropriate places in this report where their contributions might most clearly be noted. The effective assistance of two groups of people was so great, however, that they should be given special mention, particularly since their work was so basically important to the Seminar that, within the report itself, there is no place more than another in which it would be appropriate to note their contributions.

The members of the Unesco Secretariat who were responsible for the Seminar did outstanding staff work throughout. The chief burden fell upon Mr. E. N. Petersen, Head of the Public Libraries Section; he discharged his duties with imagination and force. Mrs. Maria-Teresa Velazquez and Miss Simone Basset, both of the Public Libraries Section, provided continuous and selfless service. Mr. Edward J. Carter, Head of the Libraries Division, gave both general direction and special assistance at many points. Many more documents were produced at the Seminar than could he included in any single volume. It was necessary to select for this manual those contributions which would have the widest possible use. The Secretariat of Unesco, since it is familiar with world-wide library conditions, made the final choice.

The staff of the Malmö Stadsbibliotek worked indefatigably for many months to make the Seminar a success. Miss Ingeborg Heintze, Chief Librarian, and Miss Märta Sjögreen, Assistant Librarian, bore the chief responsibility. These two, with the assistance of their staff, met and in most cases even anticipated every need, however large or small, of the staff and participants at the Seminar.

It would be impossible for me fully to express my admiration of and my sense of gratitude to these two groups and to the others who contributed to the Seminar and to the writing of this report.

CYRIL O. HOULE.

PART ONE

A DESCRIPTION OF THE SEMINAR

Learning need not *necessarily* be unpleasant.

—A participant

CHAPTER I

THE STORY OF THE SEMINAR

THE CULTURE of the world is contained in its libraries. If that culture is to have its fullest meaning for the men of today and tomorrow in helping them to plan constructively for peace and happiness, librarians must accept the great task of appraising and reshaping the work which they do. If there is to be a world community, librarians in every nation must consider how their professional responsibilities may be used in building it.

It is part of the broad programme of Unesco to give librarians the opportunity to work together in building international relationships and viewpoints. Many means are used toward this end; the seminar technique is proving to be one of the most fruitful.

In the late summer of 1948, Unesco and the International Federation of Library Associations sponsored a School for Librarians at Manchester and London, England. Despite its name, it was not a school in any ordinary sense of that term, but rather a seminar, for, while there was a strong reliance on lectures, the emphasis was on the collaboration of colleagues in sharing opinions and working out common problems.

This School which was the first international gathering of its kind, was markedly successful. All who had contact with it felt that it demonstrated a technique which would be very useful in the further development of librarianship and which was particularly appropriate for an international organization to sponsor. Unesco, meanwhile, had had a similarly rewarding experience with seminars in other fields. The national commissions and the General Conference took an increasingly favourable view of the seminar technique, and the Secretariat gained experience in organizing and directing seminars so that they had greater value and impact. It was natural therefore that the staff of the Libraries Division should include additional seminars in its future plans. Because the projection, discussion, and adoption of projects must necessarily take a long time at the international level, it was not possible to schedule a seminar before the summer of 1950.

Since the School had dealt comprehensively with the problems of librarianship, it was deemed wise to select a more specific theme for the Seminar. The experience at the School had indicated rather clearly what that theme should be, for the persons in attendance had shown deep interest in the adult educational role of the library. There is a growing feeling among the librarians of the world that an unused collection of books is like miser's gold; its true value is lost and can be regained only by vigorous use in advancing the affairs of mankind. What may be done to foster this vigorous use? How can the materials of culture in the library be made to bring about a richer quality of life through their influence on the mature members of society? What is the role of the library in adult education?

The Seminar which was centred on the study of this theme proved to be a large and complex undertaking. Therefore, just as the geographer presents his description of a country by first outlining its general shape and configuration, it is well to begin this full account of the Seminar with a brief but comprehensive overview of its total scope and method of operation.

The first decision was that three aspects of the general theme of adult education should be studied. The first dealt with the use of the library as an instrument of adult education in those areas of the world which are still under-developed and in which there is an absence of fundamental education, a lack with which Unesco is increasingly concerned. The second dealt with the use by the library of the newer methods of communication such as films, radio, recordings and television in the education of adults, and particularly in the development of group and community activities. The third dealt broadly with the whole topic of library adult education—its goals, its activities, and the measurement of its results. Each of the three topics was to be studied by a group and the participants were permitted to select the group in which they wished to work.

An invitation to hold the Seminar in Sweden, issued by the Swedish Unesco Committee, was accepted with pleasure. After exploring the resources of various cities, Unesco and the Swedish authorities chose Malmö. The dates of 24 July to 19 August inclusive were set.

Adequate time was allowed for advance planning. The Director was selected in January 1950, and the other members of the staff by April. A statement describing the Seminar was sent to the national commissions of the Member States of Unesco in March. Invitations were extended to a number of people to prepare working papers in sufficient time, so that every item requested was available, translated,

and duplicated before the start of the Seminar. A clerical staff was recruited, interpreters and a translator engaged, a professional library assembled, and exhibit materials gathered from many nations. The administrative and professional staff arrived in Malmö on July 9 and devoted two weeks to careful advance planning.

There were 45 participants from 20 nations at the Seminar. The great majority held positions of important library responsibility, a number of them being national leaders in the profession. There were in addition 16 professional, administrative and clerical staff members drawn from seven countries, one of which was not represented in the group of participants.

Virtually the whole Seminar was conducted by the discussion method, usually in small groups. There were 11 plenary sessions, at only five of which were lectures presented, the remainder being concerned chiefly with discussion of major issues and the presentation of reports. There were some ceremonies and a rich fare of entertainment and recreation, much of it provided by the Swedish hosts of the Seminar. The two official languages were English and French, and both were used at all sessions of the Seminar, including the discussions. The first few days were scheduled in advance, but, as the participants came to know one another, they themselves assumed responsibility for directing the affairs of the Seminar. This process of group planning was initiated on Thursday of the first week and was completely in effect by the following Saturday.

Each of the three groups formulated and carried out its own plans. In addition, many of the individual participants undertook particular projects, some of which were completed before the end of the Seminar, some of them after. As mutual interests were discovered, special meetings were held. Each group provided frequent mimeographed summaries of its activities, so that everyone at the Seminar could know, if he wished, what everyone else was doing. The last two days were spent in plenary sessions; each group reported in detail on its work and special committees presented recommendations and resolutions for adoption by the entire Seminar.

There was general agreement at the close that the members of the Seminar had gained much insight into the problems of adult education and had analysed with effectiveness and clarity the topics with which they were severally concerned. There was unanimous agreement that the Seminar had provided all of the participants with a rich social experience, and a heightened awareness of those human values which are common to mankind and which form the basis for effective international relationships.

CHAPTER II

A FURTHER DESCRIPTION

NOW THAT the basic facts about the Seminar have been quickly outlined, it is appropriate to examine in somewhat greater detail certain of its more important aspects. What were its objectives? What kind of people were involved? What did they do? And what did they have to work with?

THE OBJECTIVES OF THE SEMINAR

The general theme, as stated in the title of this report and the special topics as enumerated in the previous chapter, outline the chief fields of discussion and indicate the probable pattern of accomplishment. But although this broad definition is essential, it is not sufficient. There is need for a more precise statement of the goals which might reasonably be attained. Accordingly, the following objectives were outlined in advance of the Seminar and were used to guide its activities.

The first objective was to contribute to the total knowledge of librarianship by giving experts, drawn from many nations and many different kinds of libraries, the opportunity to define those topics or questions which are now most crucial in library adult education, and to examine them in the light of the experience and judgment of the group.

The second objective was to give individual participants aid in planning the improvement of library adult education in their own communities or countries. Whereas the first objective defined the participants as experts, the second considered them to be individuals who still have an obligation to learn how they may more effectively undertake their professional responsibilities. It was said of a certain American dreamer that "he soared into the infinite and dived into the unfathomable but he never paid cash". Those responsible for the Seminar hoped that, however much the participants might soar

Malmö Stadsbibliotek.



Exhibitions, film showings and discussions are a regular part of the adult education programmes of many public libraries.

or dive, they would also pay cash; their work in Malmö should have direct implications for the improvement of their libraries.

The third objective was to give a group of professionally competent people the experience of working together productively in an international setting, thus bringing about both a broadening of their horizons beyond national limitations and providing experience as active participants in a kind of learning situation which many of them should be able to adopt or adapt to their own use. Rather simply stated, it was hoped that the Seminar might inspire the participants —giving them, to be sure, not the kind of inspiration which would send delicious shivers up and down their spines but rather a practical kind which would provide a real and sustaining vision toward which they might bend their efforts.

The fourth objective of the Seminar was to give the participants the opportunity to understand the goals and programme of Unesco, to the end that they may support its activities and extend its influence. Unesco has been established to provide a vehicle of collaboration for those who are interested in cultural affairs in the many countries of the world. It is therefore the most appropriate agency through which librarians may work in their efforts to bring about international understanding.

THE PARTICIPANTS

Since the worth of the Seminar must be stated entirely in human values, it is well to consider at some length just what kinds of people came as participants.

To begin, there were 24 men and 21 women. They represented 20 nations. Their countries of origin were : Argentina, 1; Australia, 1; Belgium, 3; Canada, 2; Ceylon, 1; Colombia, 1; Denmark, 5; Egypt, 1; France, 5; Germany, 2; India, 2; Italy, 2; Netherlands, 2; Norway, 3; Sweden, 3; Switzerland, 2; Tunisia, 1; United Kingdom, 3; United States, 3; Venezuela, 2.

All the continents were therefore represented, Africa with 2, Asia with 3, Australia with 1, Europe with 30, North America with 5, and South America with 4.

The chief deficiency in the representation by countries is apparent. It is a great accomplishment to draw professional representatives from 20 nations into close collaboration with one another; but pride in this achievement must unfortunately be tempered by regret at the absence of many nations, particularly those whose wide differences

of cultural backgrounds and present beliefs would have been a great challenge and would have made an even moderately successful Seminar a magnificent achievement in international co-operation.

The participants at the Seminar spoke 12 different native tongues. Since English and French were the official languages, it was necessary for 25 of the 45 participants to speak a language other than their own. Of the total group of participants, 11 spoke French, three of them with substantial difficulty. Twenty-five spoke English, five with substantial difficulty. The remaining nine were bilingual.

The positions held by the participants were of the most varied sort. By imposing certain Procrustean limitations, it is possible to group them into categories, although it must be remembered that a really complete listing would have as many job descriptions as there were participants at the Seminar.

Type of position	Number of participants indicating that this position was their Primary responsibility	Secondary responsibility
Head of city or county library or library system	24	2
Head of department in city or county library system	7	0
Head of university library	1	0
Regional, provincial or county inspector of libraries	4	14
Head of department in university library system	1	0
Librarian performing basic library service (such as cataloguing or circulation)	0	13
Teacher of library school subjects	2	13
Inspector of regional education programmes	1	0
Advisor in the development of libraries	2	0
Director of centralized service unit for libraries	1	0
Director of secondary school	1	0
Cultural attaché, legation	1	0

Many of the participants also have other responsibilities allied with their library duties. At least one administers a local museum. Another holds these positions: chairman of the provincial committee for adult education, manager of a programme of popular lectures for his community and secretary-general of the committee of lectures

for his province, and member of the board of the municipal theatre.

The length of time which participants have held their present positions is as follows : less than five years, 23; five to nine years, eight; 10 to 14 years, seven; 15 to 19 years, two; 20 to 24 years, four; not given, one.

The present age of the participants varies as follows : under 36, 12; 36 to 50 years, 23; 51 years or over, eight; not given, two.

From these two tables one may conclude that the majority of the participants are in the substantial middle years of their professional careers. Since the actual age range was from 26 to 60 years, it is apparent that there were no novices and nobody who has passed beyond the possibility of vigourous and active service. Most of the participants, have been in their positions for a relatively short period of time, chiefly since the close of the war, and presumably therefore may be expected to be still exploring potentialities.

When one attempts to describe the educational backgrounds of the participants, even Procrustean limits fail. It is equally difficult to compare the educational backgrounds of persons from 20 different countries and to express that comparison in terms which do not reveal the provincialism of the author. The former is made difficult by the diversity of educational programmes from country to country and within the same country, and the latter by the various terms used to express levels of attainment. Is the "fil.mag." of Sweden the same as the "M.A." of England or the "M.A." of the United States? Are the doctorates of France, Belgium, Germany, Czechoslovakia, Switzerland, and Argentina comparable? Is the LL.B. of the United States equivalent to the Doctorat en Droit of France? Is a library training programme lasting two years, summers excepted, six times better than one which lasts three months? These questions are among the more easily answered of those which confront one who wishes to analyse and compare the educational background of the participants at the Malmö Seminar.

None the less, there may be some value in making very general comparisons—at least they show how diverse an educational background the participants possess. Thirty-four of them have had formal library training, the other nine librarians having come to their positions without the benefit of such preparation. Four have been trained in law, one in pedagogy, and one in medicine. At least 11 have been awarded advanced degrees. A fairly large number have had library apprenticeships or interneships, either as a part of their formal professional preparation or on a self-sought basis following their training. Twenty have had substantial foreign library experience

of various sorts; 12 have studied in foreign universities, 11 have held positions in foreign libraries, and 10 have undertaken systematic programmes of observation of foreign libraries. Most of the 20 are Europeans and half are Scandinavians; the Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish librarians have close contact with one another.

The careers of several of the participants are excellent tributes to the value of adult education. One who was accounted by his colleagues as among the ablest and most effective members of the Seminar was, in his own words "generally self-educated in a manner of speaking". A second, who did not progress beyond the second year of college, has undertaken a rigorous programme of professional self-education. She has attended 12 national library conferences, five national adult educational meetings, and four library institutes. She has studied in detail the adult educational programmes in nine cities in her own country, and has for many years read and studied all available materials in adult education. A third participant left school at the age of 14 and spent the next 13 years as a farmer and printer. Beginning at the age of 24, he studied in folk high schools and in adult educational courses. At the age of 31, he finally entered the active profession of librarianship.

THE STAFF

The staff of the Seminar consisted of 16 persons. Central responsibilities were carried primarily by the three group leaders, one of whom also served as Director. Five persons were drawn from the Unesco Secretariat: two provided supervision and integration with Unesco policy as well as administrative control over the physical arrangements and resources available; one served as Seminar librarian; one as head of the Seminar Office; and one as specialist in Seminar public relations. There were three secretaries (two of whom could speak English and Swedish and one who could speak English, French and Swedish), three interpreters, and one translator. The final member was the head of the Malmö Stadsbibliotek (City Library), who was hostess for the Seminar and who made all local arrangements.

THE PHYSICAL ARRANGEMENTS

The major headquarters for the Seminar was the central library of the Malmö Stadsbibliotek. There the Seminar occupied six rooms ;

including a large lecture hall, a commodious lounge, two offices, and two rooms arranged for discussions. As the participants began to feel at home, a process which occurred with extraordinary rapidity, more and more of the library's own space was invaded. By the end of the first week, anyone who toured the library would find members of the Seminar using the stacks, the workrooms, and the lunchroom for discussions, conferences, typing and storage, and the reading rooms for individual study and work. So far as the members of the Seminar knew, the staff of the Stadsbibliotek was charmed by this invasion.

Housing accommodations were provided at a number of local hotels and in several private homes. Since the time of the Seminar was also the period of heaviest tourist traffic and of the provincial trade fair, it was not possible to concentrate all housing accommodation into a few hotels. Breakfast for all participants was provided at one restaurant near most of the hotels, and lunch and dinner at another restaurant somewhat nearer the library.

THE ACTIVITIES

The major work of the Seminar was carried on in the three groups; each worked out its own distinctive method of procedure which is described later in this report. The programme of lectures, ceremonies, and tours which is presented as Appendix C is self-explanatory.

The members of the Seminar soon began to build a very substantial additional programme of their own. As they came to know one another better, they found to their profit and pleasure that almost every one had some field of specialization. There was no need to bring outside specialists into the Seminar; there was hardly time enough to use the experts who were already present.

In addition to the informal, and incessant, discussion which took place during all waking hours, a number of special meetings were held, entirely at the initiative of the participants. One interesting device was the self-announced lecture. A participant who wished to have the reactions of his colleagues concerning some ideas of his own would post a notice saying that at such and such a time in such and such a place he would like to express those ideas and he hoped that anyone interested would join him. One participant described the demonstration library project of Unesco in Delhi, of which he is the director-designate. Another presented a tentative plan for constructing a set of library objectives. These and other speakers did not lack for an audience, even in the last hurried days of the Seminar.

Motion pictures were shown. The response to a first showing of documentary and educational films was so great that eventually programmes were scheduled two evenings a week; attendance was voluntary but it was always large.

There were many tours suggested and arranged by the participants themselves; to Stockholm, to various nearby cities in Denmark and Sweden, to local shipyards, to the Workers' Education Association, to the municipal theatre, to a large correspondence school, to the University at Lund, and to the dedication of a Carl Milles statue with the sculptor himself present.

Many small groups were formed for one or more discussions, as a result of a bulletin board call for those interested in a particular topic to present themselves. One of the most frequent sights was small groups of people sitting in a circle busily discussing some topic.

Many of the participants came with special problems and sought advice and assistance wherever they could find it. One participant had a new building to plan as soon as he returned to his home; he examined libraries and library plans, consulted reference books, and talked with many of the other members present. Another participant plans to install a bookmobile service, and she talked with every person in the Seminar who had had experience in such work. Others had more personal problems, dealing with their further professional study or the handling of personality issues in their libraries; they sought assistance from those of their colleagues who, they thought, could provide it most effectively.

There was, finally, a very extensive social and recreational programme. A few activities—teas, receptions, and a final party—were planned for all of the members of the Seminar. Far more were undertaken on a friendly and informal basis, as members of the Seminar found others who were congenial and took part in activities with them.

THE RESOURCES

In addition to the expert knowledge possessed by their colleagues, there were other places to which members of the Seminar could turn for assistance.

The chief of these was the Seminar library. The staff of Unesco began, early in 1950, to compile a list of basic references dealing with the subject of the Seminar. These were secured, in duplicate

copies where possible, from all available sources: the Unesco library, the library of the United States Information Service in Stockholm, various Scandinavian libraries, and the personal libraries of members of the staff. This professional library contained approximately 300 volumes. It was catalogued and presented attractively, with a few simple rules. The members of the Seminar used it very extensively, more so than in any other seminar of which the Director has had experience.

It was supplemented by two special collections made available by the Malmö Stadsbibliotek. One of these was a browsing and recreational library and the other a group of books about the various Scandinavian countries, particularly Sweden. Both of these collections were also much used.

A vast quantity of material was sent or brought to the Seminar for distribution to the participants and staff. A few items were made available at a time, so that each might receive more careful attention; virtually all copies of every item were distributed.

Each of the participants was requested to bring with him to the Seminar a report on the present condition of library adult education in his own country. These reports were bound and made available as a special collection in the library. Later some of them were duplicated and issued to the individual members of the Seminar.

The spacious quarters made possible the effective display of a number of exhibits. These were provided by Unesco, by national libraries and library associations, by particular libraries, and by the participants themselves. In order to give each exhibit the proper emphasis, only a few materials were presented at one time. An Exhibits Committeee, made up of participants, was constantly building new exhibits, taking down old ones, and arranging for special brief talks about the material on display. The participants were deeply impressed not only by the exhibits themselves, but also by the example of how exhibits may be used effectively.

The Stadsbibliotek itself was one of the most important resources at the Seminar. The main library illustrates in an extremely effective fashion how an old building not originally intended for a library may be so remodelled that its beauty is a constant delight to the eye and its functionalism a continuing satisfaction to the mind. Many, perhaps most, of the participants had never seen so attractive and efficient a library. A month spent in daily contact with it made a deep impression on everyone.

The experience gained in the planning and reconstruction of the main library was used to great advantage in building a branch library

which, although smaller than its model, is even more harmonious and useful. It was the unanimous view of the participants that this branch's physical plant and facilities make it one of the most beautiful small libraries in the world.

The possibilities of the library buildings have been utilised very fully by the staff. Just as the members of the Seminar could be frequently found sketching and photographing various physical details, so were they often observed questioning the staff members closely on library processes and taking notes for use at home.

The libraries and other adult educational resources of the metropolitan area of Copenhagen were also available, since that city is just across the Sound from Malmö. One day was spent studying these facilities and many of the participants preceded or followed this necessarily cursory view with a more detailed study. Many of them also visited other Swedish and Danish libraries and were greatly assisted in doing so and in other ways by Mr. Bengt Hjelmqvist, First Library Advisor of the Swedish Government, and by Mr. Robert Hansen, Library Director of the Library Inspectorate of Denmark, both of whom were visitors to the Seminar.

THE WORKING PAPERS

Whenever 50 people come together to discuss a topic, the diversity of their points of view is often so marked that they have great difficulty in finding any common approach. When the 50 people come from 20 nations, when they speak 12 different native tongues, and when many of them must express their thoughts in a language which is foreign to them, the differences are far more striking and the problem of finding a common orientation is greatly magnified. In such circumstances, it is often useful to begin by scheduling an introductory lecture or series of lectures, but this procedure has its disadvantages. The lecture consumes time, particularly since lectures breed lectures. The process of translating the lecture from one language to another takes away the original flavour of the lecturer's own idiom and method of expression. It is necessary to use as lecturers those persons who are immediately available despite the fact that they may not be the best authorities or those who are able to express themselves best. The lecture is an art-form, with its own rules and requirements. Unfortunately many lecturers show no awareness of the obligations which they must accept if they are to succeed in illuminating a subject rather than casting a pall of apathy over their audience.

Since lectures are apparently at once indispensable and dangerous, it is well that they be used sparingly. At the Malmö Seminar, there were only six lectures which were a part of the work programme, although there were a few speeches on various ceremonial occasions, visits to institutions and special meetings called by the participants. For the rest, working papers were used.

These working papers were commissioned in advance of the Seminar after the main objectives and themes of discussion had been formulated and copies were made available to all participants at the beginning of the Seminar.[1] Each group considered with care the papers which had been provided especially for it; in most cases, however, there was no formal discussion of the separate papers. Rather they established a general framework for the discussion and a common foundation from which the exploration of problems could begin. The points made in the papers were synthesized into the thought of the group whenever they appeared to be relevant to the specific tasks undertaken.

Working papers have certain special advantages. They make it possible to use the intellectual resources of many countries; a working paper may be requested from the leading authority on a subject wherever he may reside. At Malmö, they helped to build a bridge of understanding between those who spoke English and those who spoke French. With the exception of certain publications of Unesco itself, there are virtually no comparable statements of the theory and practice of library adult education which are available in both languages. It may be hoped that the papers in this volume will extend this advantage beyond the boundaries of the Seminar to the entire profession.

There is a great saving of time. It may take as much as a half-day session to present a lecture and have it translated. A working paper may be read in a far shorter time; care has been taken in the translation, and it comes to each participant directly in his chosen language.

The working paper provides a useful reference. It remains for re-reading, study and consultation. It may be shown to others. It may be taken away from the Seminar and be used as a bridge between it and the participants' home situation.

Finally, the working paper clears the ground for discussion. It establishes basic reference points. It defines crucial terms. It reviews the past and present situations. The participants do not need to retrace old territory but may go on to new.

1. "Films in Public Libraries", published by the *Library Journal*, New York, as Vol. 72. No. 18, 15 Oct. 1947, second part, was translated into French as a working paper for Group II,

The chief drawback of the working papers as compared with lectures is that they lack the full flavour imparted by direct contact with a personality. This drawback is not so important in an international seminar as it might be elsewhere. The differences among the participants are so great and the time of meeting is so short that there is no monotony which needs to be enlivened by the introduction of outside personalities.

The working papers as presented here are in virtually the same form as they were used at the Seminar. Minor editorial changes have been made in a few of them but no attempt has been made to change their content or to make them uniform in style.

PART TWO

LIBRARY ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

(Group I)

On the continent of Europe, our practice is based on our theory; in England and the United States, the theory is based on the practice.

—A participant.

CHAPTER III

ADULT EDUCATION AS A FUNCTION OF THE LIBRARY[1]

THE MOST OBVIOUS COMMENT that may be made about adult education is that it cannot be precisely defined. As one surveys the broad reaches of activity which are covered by the term and catches glimpses of the bewildering prospects and intricate by-paths which it includes, there seems little hope of a definition which will clearly include all that should be included and exclude all that should be left out. Everyone who is concerned with adult education stands at some particular place within the field and his horizon is shaped for him by the point of his location. When he talks with others, he always finds that they see the field in a somewhat different fashion than he does himself. As a result, he usually concludes that adult education is inherently undefinable. This conclusion has been reached so many times in the past 25 years by individuals, committees, associations, and national or international conferences, that one might almost infer that the chief characteristic of adult education is that it cannot be defined.

And yet why should it ever have been expected that there would be a precise statement explaining this term which covers so broad a range of human activity? Is there a precise definition of "library"? What about other words which connote fields of professional service? What is "health"? What is "recreation"? What is a "university"? If we cannot arrive at exact definition for these terms, how can we demand it of adult education, which is, if anything, a vaster concept?

If we inquire, instead, into the major idea which the term implies, and abandon the hope of precision, we may come to a more fruitful conclusion. It is hard to define "health" exactly but the doctor and the patient both have a clear general idea of what it is. It is conceivable that, despite the diversity of viewpoints which seem to separate adult educators, we may find some common conceptions which, when made clear, will help them to work more effectively with one

1. This chapter is a digest of the address delivered by the Director as an introduction to the work of the Seminar and Group I.

another. It is particularly important at this international Seminar, when we have so many different backgrounds, customs, and conceptions, that we must have as clear a common understanding as is possible of the major field within which we shall work together.

Most adult educators tend toward one of two definitions of the field within which they work. These definitions are not contradictory and neither is more or less valid than the other. The difference is simple: one is much more inclusive than the other.

All philosophers will agree that education, so far as it is a natural process, is the result of experience. It is what we do, and what we think about what we do that educates us. But is all experience education? In answering this question, educators disagree.

In the broader sense, it would appear that all experience of whatever sort has an educational value. As a man reads a book, magazine, or newspaper, sees a motion picture, listens to the radio, talks with friends, watches television, works at his job, or sits in solitary contemplation, he is doing things which have some kind of an effect upon him. He acquires information, increases a skill, or gains new insight. He is helped to reinforce or change an attitude or sense of appreciation. The psychiatrists and psychoanalysts have demonstrated clinically what we already knew empirically : random, unorganized, and unplanned experience has a powerful impact upon people and produces marked changes within them.

This view of education is a valid one. It leads us on, however, to another point. There are some experiences which we undertake consciously for the purpose of learning. When experience is purposefully directed toward the production of changes within ourselves, those changes are more likely to occur than if experience is random and formless. One who studies a book will learn more from it than one who reads it for recreation; his enjoyment may be less but his education will be greater. We institute schools for the young so that we may induct them carefully into adulthood. We do not merely let them grow wild in the streets. Our belief in the value of conscious goals in the education of children should extend to a similar belief in the education of adults.

It is for this reason that some adult educators prefer to use the term "education" as signifying not all experience but only that more direct kind which is undertaken with a desire to learn or a desire to teach. If we were to draw a large circle and label it "experience" we would need to draw a smaller circle within the larger and call it "education". In this case the incidental learning products of the experience which is not undertaken for purposes of education

might be called "conditioning" or some other term. But whatever words we use, we are not merely playing with words. There is a real and substantial difference between experience which is directed toward the learning of new skills, knowledge, understanding, attitudes, or appreciations and that which is not.

The element of conscious purpose can exist in the mind of the teacher, the mind of the learner, or both. The individual, in his path through life, frequently finds that his way will be simpler or faster or his enjoyment richer if he develops his potentialities further by learning something more. Every library has, for example, some people who pursue their own course of self-directed study without the knowledge or the assistance of the librarians. Often groups of adults may work together, with no formal teacher, to explore their experience and to come to generalizations which are useful to them. On the other hand, an institution can try to teach the people of its community even though its first step in the process must be to help them understand what it is that they need to learn. Some libraries have, for example, set themselves the task of doing something about such problems of their community as disease, intolerance, or narrowness of cultural interests, and are selecting and promoting the reading of books which may offer solutions to these ills. Usually, of course, there is no major difference of intent between teacher and learner. In most learning situations, there is both a teacher who wishes to teach, and a learner who wishes to learn.

The second of the two definitions is the more useful one for our purposes. To use the first and say that education is equivalent to all life is to adopt a framework so broad that specific accomplishment becomes almost impossible. In trying to do everything, we are likely to do nothing. Furthermore, and perhaps more basically, the second definition is more in accord with the general and accepted view of education. It is the one which seems natural to most people, including those who are not specialists in the field.

But, of course, we have now only defined education. We must also consider the difference between the education of children and the education of adults. This distinction is another one that cannot be made precisely but about which our general conceptions can serve us as useful guideposts. Since a child grows gradually into manhood, as a sapling becomes a tree, nobody can mark off the exact moment when maturity arrives. Nonetheless, although the process of change from one to the other is gradual, the two are different. An adult is a mature person. He has the responsibilities of life upon his shoulders and is relatively independent rather than relatively dependent as

is a child. He earns his living, he votes or has the right to vote, he plays a role in the real community of politics and economics rather than in the play community of children. Furthermore an adult's psychological orientation is different from that of a child. He has had many experiences and hence views each new experience with a balance of judgment which is impossible to one of less maturity. He has had kinds of experience which no child can have: courtship, marriage, the rearing of children, vocational adjustment, and a sense of bodily decline rather than growth. Because of these differences the education of adults must be planned and executed in a fashion which is profoundly different from that of the education of children. The sad failure of much adult education in the past has resulted from the fond but unrealized hope that there could be a substantial transplanting of programmes originally designed for children to the new field of adult education.

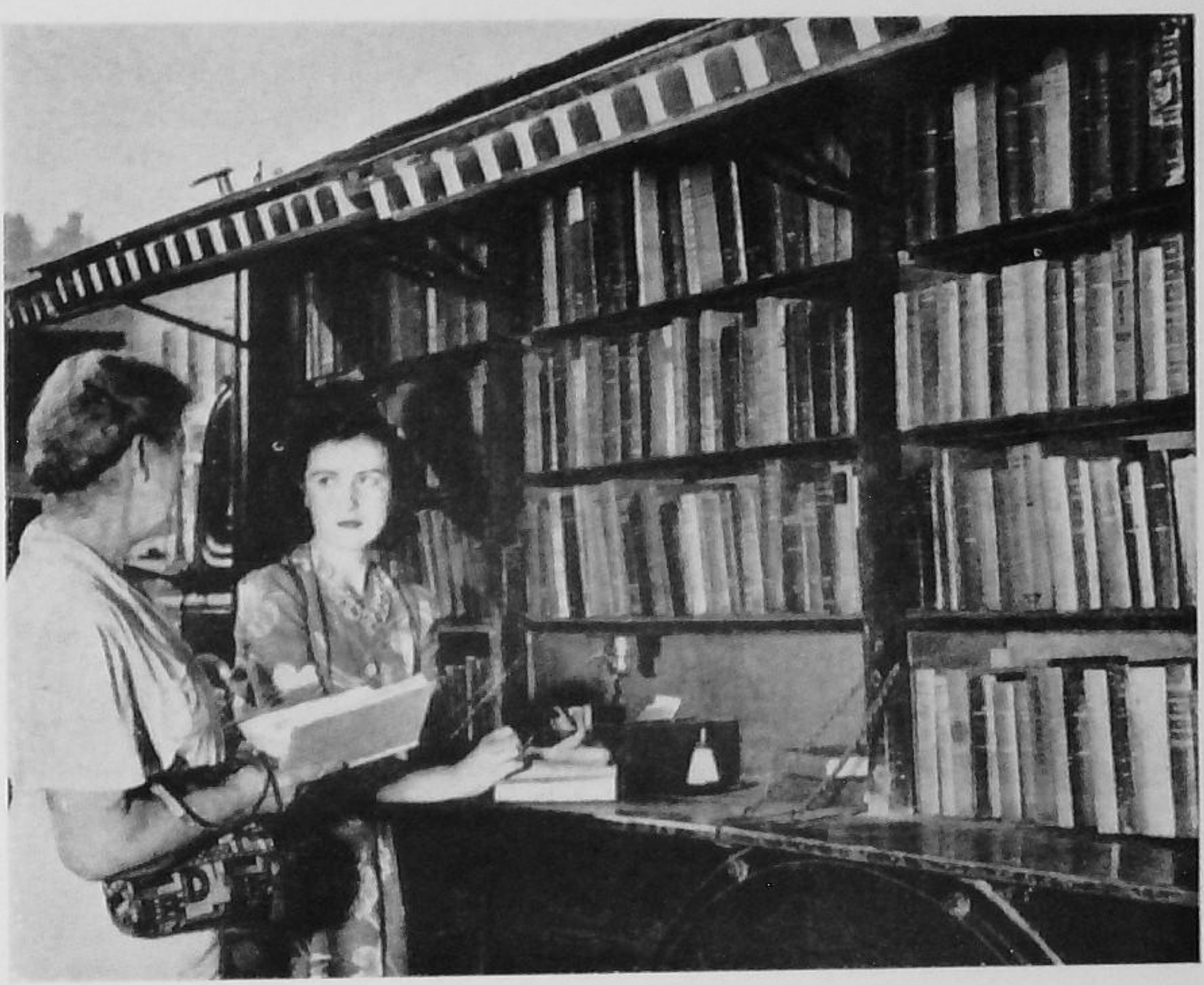
The foregoing considerations may perhaps be summarized briefly if we say that, for convenient reference but without hope of exact precision, we may define adult education as the effort put forth by a mature person to improve himself by acquiring new skills, information, understandings, attitudes, or appreciations, or the effort of an agency to present the opportunity and the encouragement to mature persons for improving themselves or their community.

What are the implications of the foregoing distinctions for the library?

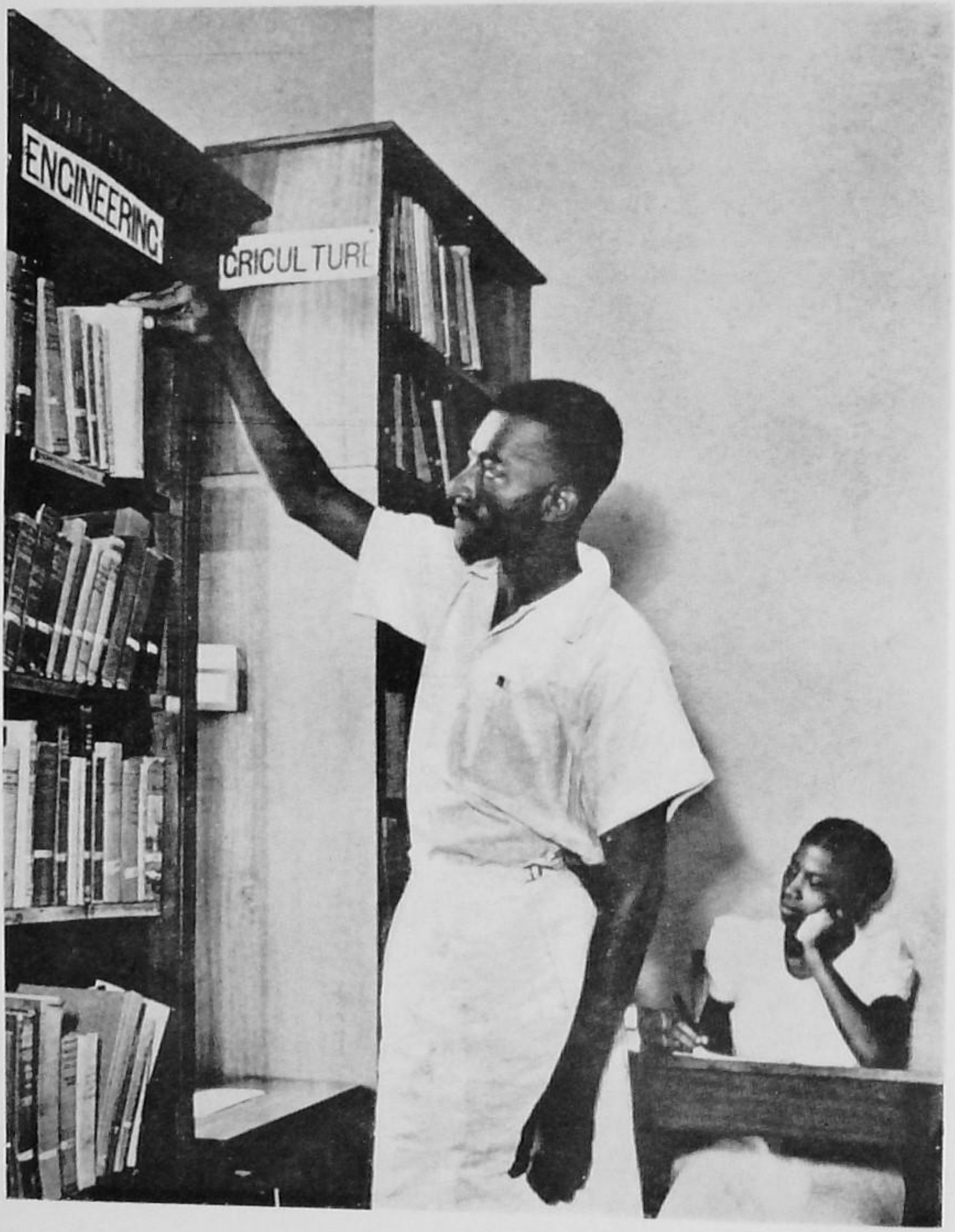
Clearly, if we take the first definition of adult education, all libraries, inasmuch as they provide the tools of learning for those who wish to use them, are adult educational institutions. Anything which they do to enlarge the number of these tools or make them more widely available is, in a sense, adult education. In such a case, the extension of the library itself is an extension of adult education.

If we take the second definition, we are committed to a more positive programme. We accept the fact that the library must take the lead in stimulating, and helping to shape, the desire to learn on the part of the people of its community. Since only a small percentage of people in the most favoured communities use the facilities of their libraries and since the majority of the people of the world have at best only mediocre library service, librarians must conclude that, if they are to have a greater share in the building of happier individuals and a better society, they must go beyond their role as providers of material into a more active role as adult educators.

After making this decision, librarians ordinarily move in one of two general directions:



Mobile libraries bring service to the homes and work places of the people.



The "open shelf" system encourages self-education.

The first is to develop a set of special activities, often carried out by a separate division or branch of the library. In the United States adult education has sometimes seemed to be synonymous with readers' advisory services, reading lists for special interest groups, the work of subject-matter specialists, the provision of audio-visual aids, or programmes of public relations designed to persuade people to support and use their libraries. In such an approach, the new service takes its place alongside the old ones. If there is a new department, it exists beside the more traditional ones and makes its own fight for a place in the budgetary sun.

A second approach considers that adult education is not a special emphasis of the library but a central theme running through all aspects of service. Often those who have started with a special department have found that its work, unless it is rigorously limited, spreads out far beyond the original scope of service and creates problems of internal organization. Such libraries have therefore frequently turned from the first to the second approach to adult education.

The implications of this approach for the re-examination of the library's organization and programme of service are of the most far-reaching sort. All the parts of the library are drawn into the planning for the accomplishment of the library's educational programme. Specialized departments dealing with such functions as readers' advisory service or extension activities have an important place, but so do all the other sections of the library's organization, staff and programme. Co-operative staff planning becomes essential, as do integration of effort and evaluation of progress and outcomes.

Let us assume, for example, that a library staff decides to make its community more fully aware of the goals and programme of Unesco. Once this decision is made, we see its implication for all parts of the library staff. Some of the book budget must be allocated for the purchase of materials. Decisions must be made as to which of these materials are to become a part of the permanent collection and entered in the catalogue, which are to be handled specially for certain display and extension purposes, and so on. Exhibits must be prepared. The audio-visual department must arrange for the selection and routing of films. Lay groups must be informed of the facilities available and encouraged to use them. A public relations campaign must be planned and carried out. It may be necessary to train lay discussion leaders. The reference librarian must be prepared to handle a volume of special inquiries. The personal contacts with individual borrowers must be utilized. Other adult educational

agencies in the community must be brought in, where possible, so that there will be co-operative effort. Some method of evaluating the results must be projected and used.

No matter what goal may be chosen, it will almost surely draw a large part of the library staff into its execution. Let us speculate, for example, on how a library might go about accomplishing each of the following possible goals:

to make the parents of the community better able to raise their children wisely;

to support and reinforce programmes of fundamental education;

to interest more of its borrowers in becoming purposeful rather than random readers;

to make the community a more physically attractive place in which to live;

to assist the people of the community in understanding and making effective decision about major social and political questions; and

to develop a better programme of community-wide recreation.

Some librarians feel that adult education is of such great importance that the library should be given over entirely to it. It is hard to agree with this contention. A library ordinarily exists to serve several functions simultaneously. If one analyses these functions in terms of the purposes of the borrower, there appear to be at least five major ones. Some people use the library as a tool for research, either contributing to the sum of human knowledge or undertaking some special task required for an immediate purpose. Some use it as a source of information, securing facts from it which they need to know. Some use it for aesthetic appreciation, keeping keen and alive their sense of beauty. Some use it for recreation, as they would a park or a theatre. And some use it for education, in the second of the two major meanings of that term. (In the first meaning, all of the functions of the library are educational.)

The library must therefore be considered a multi-purpose agency. Only very seldom does it have some one function—research, perhaps, or recreation—as its only goal. As the person who is going on a journey must strike some balance between speed, comfort, and economy, so the librarian must think constantly not about some one goal but about many. No matter what emphases he may like to lay upon particular goals, he has a responsibility to serve his community as it wishes to be served. Furthermore, the other four functions are convenient stepping-stones toward education. For education should have a kind of pre-eminent role among the five. Experience which is consciously directed toward the improvement of the individual,

the group, or society has a potency for good which is far beyond that which is directed toward other ends.

It is for this reason that the present Seminar holds such power and interest for us. We might perhaps have had a seminar on the role of recreation or research in libraries. Such a seminar would almost certainly have considerable value. It may well be questioned, however, whether that value would be as far-reaching, as potent, or as enduring as may be provided by this Seminar which deals with education.

We are meeting here to consider only one agency of adult education: the library. We must therefore be careful to remember that there are many other agencies in which we have professional colleagues who are also concerned with the education of mature people. Public schools, colleges, and universities are expanding into this field; there are some universities which have many more adult students than those who are regularly resident on the campus. Museums, settlement houses, private tuition-charging schools, labour unions, industries, co-operatives, voluntary associations, churches, government bureaux, and dozens of other kinds of agencies are all active in this field.

The library encounters these other agencies every day. In some places it is actually a part of a larger unit which includes other kinds of service. In most places, however, the library is relatively autonomous and has its own programme of service. The library staff must constantly determine to what extent it will work with other agencies and to what extent it should work alone. If the people of a community are to be adequately served without gaps or duplication, a considerable measure of co-operation and collaborative effort should be undertaken.

By working with other agencies and studying their programmes, we shall learn how to undertake our own more effectively. The principles of adult education are based firmly on the psychology of maturity and the sociology of groups and the community. All agencies must use these same principles although each must do so in terms of its own nature. In the United States, for example, the agricultural extension service has been very successful in learning how to deal with lay groups, and various vocational testing and advisory services have worked out excellent techniques for counselling individuals. Libraries could well study these successful programmes not as a prelude to adopting their practices entire but as a means of undertaking the somewhat harder task of seeing what principles they utilize and how those principles may be used within the setting and the resources of the library.

If we work together both within the profession of librarianship and as co-operators with other agencies, perhaps we may hope to establish a view which the modern world, with its nervous pre-occupation with the immediate, has tended to neglect. It is the idea that education should be a lifelong process, so that the individual develops his potentialities not merely while he is a child but so long as he lives. No idea is more universal than this one; it finds a place somewhere in the tradition of every culture which is represented among us. It provides us therefore with a common basis toward which we may move together toward mutual and international understanding. But it is an ideal which has never been realized for more than a few, chiefly for the rich and the leisured. The best hope of the world is to recapture the ideal, to dramatize it so that it gains popular acceptance, and to build practical programmes leading to its accomplishment. Adult education should become not the province of the few but the democratic hope of the many.

CHAPTER IV

THE BASIC CHARACTER OF ADULT EDUCATION IN THE LIBRARY

WHAT IS ADULT EDUCATION? To what extent is it a function of the library? What are the broad fundamentals underlying a successful programme of library adult education? How can a country or a particular library improve its own programme? It was the task of Group I to consider these basic questions, to define the chief issues which they raise, and to come to some agreement on important matters of policy and procedure.

The group was composed of 22 persons. The group leader was the Director of the Seminar. The participants were from 12 nations: Argentina, 1; Belgium, 3; Denmark, 2; France, 3; Germany, 1; Italy, 1; Netherlands, 2; Norway, 2; Sweden, 1; Switzerland, 2; United Kingdom, 1; and United States, 2. Many of the participants have multiple responsibilities but in their primary professional positions, 12 are administrators of local or county library systems, three are inspectors of libraries, three are the heads of departments in public libraries, one is a professor of library science, one is head of a university library, and one is an adviser in the development of libraries.

THE BIOGRAPHY OF THE GROUP

The first activity of the group was to provide the opportunity for each member to introduce himself, and tell something of his own work and the development of library adult education in his country. Because of the large number of participants, this took a relatively long time, but it proved to be profitable in laying a basis of understanding for future sessions and in giving everyone the opportunity to talk.

The leader had prepared an extensive and detailed outline of the general field of inquiry of the group. It was his original intention that the group should consider this outline rapidly and select certain

topics or issues for committee analysis and report. The group rejected this idea; it wished to study the outline in some detail and thereby gain an overall perspective, and it did not wish to be broken up into committees. Some of the members, indeed, seemed primarily interested in projecting a course of instruction for themselves. Others, among them the group leader, found themselves in polite but firm disagreement with any such procedure, and pointed out that the Seminar should offer the opportunity for co-operative analysis and the reaching of group decisions. After some discussion, a compromise procedure known, after its originator, as the Bertogne Plan, was presented and adopted. It divided the Seminar time into three unequal periods, the first to be spent on a study by the whole group of the complete outline, the second to be spent on discussion by committees of significant issues that had emerged from the group study, and the third to be spent in the consideration, revision, and adoption of committee reports. A planning committee was appointed to work out a schedule, to record possible issues for more intensive discussion by committees, and to undertake any other necessary arrangements. This planning committee later appointed a report committee to prepare and present the final statement of the group. At the close of the Seminar, the members of the group were agreed that the Bertogne Plan had proved to be very satisfactory.

The planning committee divided the outline into seven major topics, and one session of the group was held on each. First, there was a discussion of the address which the group leader had delivered to the entire Seminar, given as Chapter III of this report. On the following days, the other topics were considered. Three were covered by working papers [1] and the group in such cases raised and considered issues which it felt to be important. On the remaining days, the group leader presented a few general remarks to serve as an introduction and to arouse interest. For the discussion, the following procedure was adopted: the participants enumerated all the questions which they had in mind, the leader writing them on the blackboard in the order in which they were presented; the leader then renumbered them so that they might be considered in a somewhat logical fashion; and the group then dealt with each question on the list. Usually, additional issues came up, and were considered. This procedure proved to be effective.

During the initial period, the planning committee posted on the bulletin board a growing list of issues which had been revealed to

1. Given in Chapters V, VI and VII.

be important. Members were asked to indicate which ones they wished to study. Committees were then formed and dealt with these special issues, making reports which were considered by the whole group in its final sessions.

Despite the very large size of the group (which contained almost as many people as the other two groups combined), and the rather general and theoretical nature of the questions which it discussed, it achieved an excellent spirit of co-operation and a sense of the practical importance of the questions it analysed.

In this group, as in the other two, a record was kept during the discussion, of possible recommendations or tentative statements of desirable goals or activities. Each individual was then asked to suggest any recommendations he felt desirable. A committee of the group considered the tentative list, amplifying, refining, adding, and combining to make an intelligible whole. The group then examined the list of recommendations and, after making revisions, adopted it.

THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF GROUP I

The members of Group I recommend that Unesco:

1. (*a*) Assemble the fullest possible information on present practices of international exchange of library personnel in all its varieties and levels.
   (*b*) Use its influence with Member States to ensure the creation of machinery and funds whereby the flow may be increased and sustained permanently. For example, librarians should be stimulated to use the provisions of the Fulbright Act.
2. Examine recent national library legislation, and proposals in being for new legislation so as to bring out common principles; and have the results of the examination published.
3. Commission a comparative examination of the status and remuneration of public librarians in Member States, especially in relation to other educational services, because in the opinion of the members of this group it will handicap, and fundamentally handicap, Unesco's attempts to improve library services if library service cannot attract the type and quality of personnel necessary to those aims.
4. Institute a survey of the various national sources of finance for public libraries.
5. Sponsor a pilot project of advanced adult education programmes in a United Kingdom or Scandinavian public library, as a

practical demonstration to strengthen the movement at this early stage of its development in Europe.

6. Recommend the appointment of advisory committees in each Member State with the task of conveying the work of public libraries in relation to adult education, and indicating, as a result thereof, those libraries which have developed the most forward methods and techniques, for the information of all libraries.
7. Consider the production of an international film demonstrating the best library practices, using as far as possible the various national films now in existence.
8. Publish an international directory of libraries with information on special resources and interests.
9. Consider the enlargement of the *Bulletin for Libraries* to include:
   (*a*) Information concerning material issued by other sections of Unesco which might be used in library programmes of adult education.
   (*b*) Information concerning national material available for circulation internationally, such as exhibitions, films, film strips, and photographs.
10. Sponsor or attempt to secure the publication commercially of a quarterly journal of abstracts of the most important articles appearing in library professional journals.
11. Consider the organization of seminars where both public and university librarians may meet internationally on a common ground, such as in the fields of adult education, national interlending systems, and other schemes of unification of national book resources.
12. (*a*) Consider ways and means of securing the annual publication of a select list of important works published in all countries each year, somewhat similar to the annual volume of *British Book News*.
    (*b*) Consider ways and means of securing the publication of a very select international bibliography of the outstanding books of the last 100 years or a shorter period, indicating into which language translations have been made.

CHAPTER V

PLANNING AND ORGANIZING THE LIBRARY'S ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMME

Working Paper prepared by

MARION E. HAWES. [1]

THE CONCEPT of the library as an effective force in adult education is based on three assumptions:

First, adults can learn. We have not doubted that fact but it is good to know that psychologists have confirmed it.

Second, it is essential that they do learn. In this period of constant change and recurring crises they are confronted in their personal lives with new and difficult problems and need help in solving them. As citizens they must be stimulated to think and to discuss community, national and international questions which affect them and the solution of which ultimately depends upon the people themselves.

Third, the library is in a strategic position to help adults to learn. It can serve as a centre of information; it can give individual guidance to the reader so that he may pursue a course of reading or study on a subject of his own choice and at a time convenient to him; and it can give leadership in communicating ideas and in stimulating discussion on vital issues within the community.

In order to assume this leadership, the librarian must create in his library an atmosphere of friendliness, of interest in people, while at the same time maintaining a position of impartiality in the consideration of subject matter. A basic principle in American public library service which has done much to give citizens confidence in it is stated in the American Library Association's Library Bill of Rights. [2]

"As a responsibility of library service, books and other reading matter selected should be chosen for values of interest, information and enlightenment of all the people of the community. In no case should any books be excluded because of the race or nationality or the political or religious views of the writer.

"There should be the fullest practicable provision of material

1. Co-ordinator of Work with Adults, Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, Maryland.
2. "Library Bill of Rights", in American Library Association *Bulletin*, July-August, 1948, p. 285.

presenting all points of view concerning the problems and issues of our times, international, national, and local; and books or other reading matter of sound factual authority should not be proscribed or removed from library shelves because of partisan or doctrinal disapproval."

The adult education emphasis does not mean that recreational needs are to be ignored. To encourage people in the creative use of leisure time; to lead them to enjoy the satisfaction of using their minds or of deepening their appreciations and broadening their interests; to help them to find wholesome recreational activities is in itself educational.

An effective programme must be adapted to the kind of community which the library serves. It must be related to people's needs. Though only a large and technically trained staff can launch an elaborate community survey, some facts or trends are fairly easily ascertainable from census figures, a study of the neighbourhood, and visits to leaders and agencies familiar with local characteristics.

Is the population predominately old, middle-aged and settled, or made up of young married couples beginning to raise families? Are there many single persons living alone who have time on their hands? Is the population stable or constantly changing? What are other characteristics of the population: more business men or professional men; more clerical workers or skilled mechanics; more mothers with young children or grown-up families; more women who work or who stay at home? What are the general economic and cultural levels?

What are the characteristics of the community: the character of its homes, the industries in which people work, the religious and educational institutions, the cultural, social and recreational agencies and the attitudes of the people toward them? Is it primarily a neighbourhood of homes of people who work elsewhere, or of homes close to the places where people work? What religious and social groups predominate? Are there minority groups not integrated into the life of the neighbourhood who need the library's help?

Do the people form a closely knit group with common traditions or common ties to church or other group interests, or are there many diverse elements in the population? What are the reading levels? What do people do in their leisure time? Can they be brought to the library because they are interested in reading, because they are concerned for the welfare of their children, because they need help

with practical problems (how to grow gardens, how to make furniture, how to carve wood, how to make toys), or because they desire to work together to make a better neighbourhood in which to live? These are the everyday desires and needs of most people which may be used as the springboard for a library programme. The librarian and his community advisers may be concerned, however, with more far-reaching community needs and with the possibility of leading the individual to see beyond his personal problems to larger issues such as Germany's future, the Marshall Plan, the new proposals for economic union or the positive achievements of the United Nations—questions about which the people must be informed if the world situation is to be bettered. It may well be that one measure of the librarian's leadership in the community is the ability to create in readers the realization that such questions are in the long run only the broader aspects of personal problems; that the neighbourhood is a part of a larger community and that the world's problems will approach solution only as the citizens become increasingly aware of their meaning and learn how to do something constructive about them, each in his own small way.

OBJECTIVES

If the adult education emphasis in library service is accepted, book selection, organization, and programme (used in the broad sense to mean over-all objectives) become concerned with such questions as: How can the library help parents to improve family living? What up-to-date information do mechanics need on the job? How may the library contribute to a better understanding between unions and employers? What neighbourhood needs, such as housing, should citizens be informed about? What opportunities has the library to make citizens aware of national or international affairs? What specifically can be done to further understanding between groups and thus relieve tensions? In other words, what are the vital issues which concern the community and what can the library do to increase understanding of them?

BOOK SELECTION

Since budgets are seldom adequate, the selection of books becomes a matter of importance. Many librarians now think that a good

collection is not necessarily the well-rounded collection which was formerly accepted as a standard. If greater attention is given to community needs and interests it may be more important to have many books in certain subjects, with heavy duplication of titles, and to neglect subjects of lesser importance to the library's readers. This avoids the weakness of spreading too thin and not really satisfying anyone. A basic reference collection and a representative selection of standard works, both related to other library resources in the community, are of course necessary. Beyond this the librarian may be guided by such considerations as the need of mothers for pamphlets on baby care; the need for a number of copies of the latest handbook on a particular trade which is undergoing technical changes; the possibility of encouraging a not-too-serious group to discuss novels which highlight social problems; the possibility of making officials aware of some positive approaches to the problem of juvenile delinquency; or the encouragement of self-expression through handicraft by having good materials on design or skills. The assumption that a particular book or file of periodicals must be part of every respectable library receives less consideration than the question whether or not it is justifiable to purchase an item if by so doing a large group of citizens is deprived of materials necessary to the improvement of daily living. Shall a beautiful but expensive example of bookmaking, for example, take precedence over films, pamphlets or books which will lead to a wider understanding of the international situation?

Mindful of that portion of the population which has less reading ability, attention may be given to pamphlets in simple language, even to books of pictures, and the librarian will be constantly alert to books which express ideas clearly and concisely for those who have neither time nor background for a more scholarly approach. Scholars frequently criticize simplified treatments of their subject for being inaccurate or inadequate. The person concerned with popular adult education, however, has sometimes to make a choice between a watered-down presentation of a subject or none at all. He may feel that it is important for the citizen to gain enough familiarity with an idea or subject so that he will not be hostile to it. In that case even an over-simplified presentation has value. In other words, with the adult education emphasis, it may be advisable to leave to the special library or university the task of providing for the more specialized needs and regard the public library as the source of information for citizens in general.

ARRANGEMENT OF THE COLLECTION

Some American libraries, particularly branches of larger libraries, are trying to make it easier for adults to read in terms of broader interests by ignoring classification and arranging materials on the shelves according to interests. There are alcoves for the homemaker, work-interest rooms, and current affairs corners. Parents find a collection of children's books suitable to read with their children beside some carefully chosen titles on child care and management. Exhibits of the handicrafts of a particular nationality appear beside a collection of books and pamphlets about the country, its art, its people, its present status. The great books of world literature or the books which have influenced thought throughout the ages are kept as more or less permanent collections for those who may be lured to general cultural reading.

COMPILING READING LISTS

Dr. Alvin Johnson [1] has delineated sharply the distinction between booklists which suggest random reading and those which may "direct the course of reading to more significant ends". He calls the first "agglutinative"—merely thrown together without specific purpose with titles whose only relationship is common subject matter. He goes so far as to assert that a list giving the pros and cons of a current topic does not necessarily provide real educational experience. It may merely inform, whereas a reader of books which place a subject in the context of broad historical movements, for example, is really broadening his horizons.

PROGRAMME PLANNING

Whether helping the reader toward self-education or arranging a broad programme of activities in co-operation with other community agencies, the librarian will formulate his objectives by a realistic analysis of specific community needs on the one hand and the library's resources for meeting them on the other. He will concentrate on a few subjects and select those activities which his staff can best carry out and which are adapted to the level and interests of his readers.

1. Alvin, Johnson, *The Public Library—A People's University*, New York, American Association for Adult Education, 1938.

He will know what the vital issues are and find the most dynamic way of making the public conscious of them. Every effort will be focused on stimulating reading and use of library materials.

One library, made aware by an opinion poll that citizens knew little about the United Nations, concentrated its efforts upon an educational campaign through exhibits, bookmarks, radio and film programmes and the self-education of its staff in an effort to make the city conscious of what the United Nations stands for.

Another library initiated a film project, "Films Are Tools", in co-operation with representatives of business and industry. A day-long showing of films related to administration and job training demonstrated to local firms a special library service.

A branch librarian persuaded a local health committee in search of a community project, to plan a series of film forums on mental hygiene. The discussions brought a new group to the library and the books displayed interested new readers.

STAFF TRAINING

The first requisite is a staff convinced of the social significance of the library and constantly alert to opportunities for practical application of its objectives. Any programme, large or small, requires staff preparation. The participation of staff members, or of staff with community leaders, in planning activities not only assures interest but serves to explain the projects to those who are to carry them out. Careful selection of reading materials adapted to a specific programme is important and the allowance of staff time for critical examination and review of such materials is well worth while. Assistants familiar with the books can advise readers more intelligently and create interest in the subject.

Some libraries have had intensive in-service training programmes in group leadership, the psychology of human relations or discussion techniques, usually conducted by experts from other educational institutions. In a recent questionnaire, chief librarians listed most frequently the following subjects or skills as desirable for training: psychology, techniques of group work, public speaking, discussion methods, adult education principles and methods, audio-visual methods, public relations, sociology and community organization.

The first type of position with an adult education function in American libraries was that of the readers' adviser, who helped individuals and groups with study plans or vocational and educational guidance. She frequently maintained an index by subject of courses and lectures offered by other institutions in the community. A number of libraries still have this type of position though the character of the work has changed in some instances. The trend seems to be toward an adviser or field worker who assists groups in programme planning and finds numerous ways of bringing the library's resources to churches, parent associations, labour unions, women's clubs, and business, industrial or other groups. In large libraries the heads of subject departments and neighbourhood branches assume some of these functions as a part of their regular duties. They attend meetings, send exhibits, serve on committees and in countless ways assure the library's participation in community activities.

Still another type of position has been created in those libraries which have organized "great books" or current affairs discussion groups on a large scale: a "discussion group officer" or "director of great books programme" who supervises and sometimes conducts these programmes, and takes responsibility for organizing groups, possibly for finding and training leaders.

An increasing number of libraries are establishing film collections with full or part-time film librarians to supervise the selection and use of films, plan film forums, and give advisory service to programme planners. A few larger libraries have a supervisor of adult services, with assistants functioning in some of the above activities from a central office. Others have appointed a director or co-ordinator of adult services who stimulates and advises on adult activities throughout the system. He or she establishes relationships with community groups and agencies, and distributes activities to the staff member or to the specific unit of service best able to handle them. Under this plan, rather than concentrate the functions in a single office, the knowledge and skills of many staff members are put to use.

In a report on "Jobs in Adult Education" by Richard Hart [1] prepared for the Adult Education Board of the American Library Association, it is stated that a survey of 93 representative libraries of various sizes revealed that a third had full-time professional positions in adult education and about a half delegated major

1. Richard Hart, "Jobs in Adult Education", in *Adult Education Journal*. Vol. 8, No. 4, Oct. 1949, p. 226.

responsibility to a single staff member who might also be doing other things. The largest number of positions found in any one library was five. An example of a simpler organization is that of a library in a city of 152,000 inhabitants. The head of the adult department spends half his time as Head of Group Work and carries on an active community programme A sub-professional is in charge of a films and recordings department.

A library in a city of about 387,000 inhabitants has appointed a former branch librarian as Adult Activities Librarian who is experimenting with intensive field work. A country library system has a Director of Adult Education much of whose time is given to library-sponsored book clubs and discussion groups or to single programmes involving books. Films are used extensively.

ORGANIZATION OF PROGRAMME

An elaborate organization is not necessary for an effective programme. A small town library, with only one professional assistant in addition to the librarian, in one winter held three music listening evenings, a nine-weeks' discussion group on Thucydides led by a local faculty member, a beginner's sketching class, and a series of film showings on economic assistance to Europe; co-operated with numerous local group meetings; and sent exhibits to several others.

A few well-chosen films on parent-child relationships, on life in other countries, or on public affairs; or a small collection of recordings of drama, poetry, and music may be the first step. Groups will welcome the privilege of using them and the library will thereby have an opportunity to help agencies in programme planning and, incidentally, to relate books, pamphlets, and other materials to such programmes. The films may also be made the basis for the library's own programmes, with staff or neighbourhood leaders.

Emphasis on the library as an information centre may be the initial approach. An intelligent non-professional assistant or even a volunteer can, under supervision, set up a file of information about educational opportunities in the community; about lecture series, concerts or other cultural affairs. Such a file can be useful not only in answering readers' questions, but also in informing the staff about meetings to which booklists and exhibits may be sent, or about groups which may be encouraged to borrow study materials. It can also be a source for discovering community resources in leaders and speakers for future programme planning. If a careful inventory is made of

the individual interests and subject specialties of town leaders who talk or discuss well, and if at the same time the files are studied to discover community interests not met by other agencies, the librarian may discover fields in which the library may make a unique contribution.

If it is difficult because of limited staff to reach many community groups, it is possible to interpret the library's services by arranging a programme planning institute in co-operation with other community agencies. At such an institute sample programmes may be presented, leadership discussed, and exhibits of study outlines, pamphlets on timely subjects, and books helpful to leaders may be displayed. A number of libraries make such institutes an annual event, sometimes combined with a film festival. It is a very effective means for bringing together a wide variety of organizations in a co-operative effort. It may lead to the formation of a community adult education or film council through which all agencies engaged in adult education may pool their efforts for a better total community programme.

CHAPTER VI

PUBLICIZING THE PROGRAMME AND STIMULATING READING INTERESTS

Working Paper prepared by

MARIE D. LOIZEAUX [1]

"A SATISFIED CUSTOMER is the best advertisement." While that is true, it is only part of the answer we are seeking to the question: How can we make sure our library services are used to the fullest possible extent? For we must have customers or patrons before they can be satisfied by our services, and people must know of the library's existence before they will come to use it. This may seem extremely elementary, but when we know a thing very well indeed, we are apt to assume—often quite wrongly—that others know it, too.

Many persons, do not know where the library is, or even that there is one at all. I myself heard a young man say that he had passed a large building twice a day for five years and had often wondered what it was. When he knew it was a library, he came in and used it constantly. In this connexion, the *Library Occurrent* [2] had an interesting item:

"Not so long ago we went through a village and tried to find the library. Even after asking directions we found it with difficulty, and would not have known it was the library except for the revealing array of books which we could see through the front windows. A little later we drove through another village and past a large sign, PUBLIC LIBRARY, and underneath, in smaller letters, the hours it was open. Which one is your library?"

Let us not take for granted that anyone in our community is acquainted with the library and its resources and services. People may be—but even those who use the library frequently may not know all you have to offer them. So tell them about it, over and over and over again. There is no purpose in having a valuable adult education programme if it is not used widely and fully. The more persons who participate, the more worth while and satisfactory your programme will be. To this end, use every means in your power to publicize your programme as widely and thoroughly as possible.

1. Editor, *Wilson Library Bulletin*; author, *Publicity Primer*.
2. *Library Occurrent*, Oct.-Dec. 1939, p. 122.

The first means of publicity that comes to mind is the press. Newspapers and magazines can be very useful, but there are precautions the librarian must take if he is to make the best use of the newspaper. Clifford J. Laube,[1] Day Telegraph Editor of the New York *Times*, cited some of these precautions:

"The great bane of library publicity is the reporting of activities that are merely routine. Next to the colleges and secondary schools, it seems to me that public libraries are the most addicted to this fault.

"It stands to reason, in times like these when international news is pressing from all sides for priority, that libraries can assert only such claim to newspaper space as is warranted by the *significance* of their enterprises as viewed in the whole perspective of what is happening in the world.

"Routine annual reports, ordinary budget items, minor elections and appointments, unimportant gifts, the usual run of lectures and exhibits—these do not constitute news in the metropolitan sense, since they do not differ from the customary activities of all libraries.

"It is only when a library has something more than ordinarily or merely locally significant to offer that it can hope to compete against news from a thousand other quarters for space in the limited columns of metropolitan journals. Editors are quick to sense attention to any library project or library achievement which rises above routine, blazes a new trail, or points a promising path to libraries in other communities. How the story is transmitted to the newspaper is only secondarily important, except that it must of course be told as soon as it happens and not (as frequently is the case) when it is a week or more old. Ample advance notice of important events should always be sent to the Suburban Editor, in the form of brief memorandums giving essential details of what, who, where, and when.

"Librarians should feel free, if and when they have stories to tell the public which have genuine news *distinction*, to inform metropolitan editors, either by letter or phone as the instance of the situation may warrant. Editors will have no difficulty in assigning competent local correspondents or even staff men to handle stories.

"But a plague on public libraries which take up the valuable time of hard-pressed news editors with reports of trivial matters!

"The simple criterion should always be: Has this library something to tell the public which will interest a wide range of readers?

"If so, contact the editor at once by hook or crook, and leave it to him to arrange adequate pictorial and reportorial coverage.

1. Clifford J. Laube, "No Tripe Wanted", *in Wilson Library Bulletin*. March, 1944, pp. 517-518.

"One final reservation: Occasionally it happens that even a good library story is crowded out of the paper because of the pressure of more important spot news. In such exceptional cases, take the disappointment with good sportsmanship and trust to better luck next time."

While it is true that most library work is not thrilling and exciting in the headline sense, still it can be told in exceedingly interesting fashion if you think of it from the angle of the public instead of your staff. You need lots of ingenuity and imagination — not in the information but in its presentation. And while you are about it, drop out all the library terms. The public really doesn't know, or care, what we mean by "accession", "discards", "circulation", etc. If you doubt that these words are misunderstood, ask some non-library-minded persons and see for yourself. When you mean "books lent for home reading", why not say so? Articles must be in the reader's vocabulary, not the writer's, and in the reader's interest, too. I was forcibly reminded of this the other day, when preparing material for an issue of the *Wilson Library Bulletin*. My assistant, in going over an article, had clipped a little note to the page, asking: "Does this make sense?" It did to me, because I am a librarian, but my assistant isn't, so it was natural enough for her to question this sentence: "All slipping is revised to prevent errors in overdues."

You can do a great deal to inform the community about your conception of the value of the library with a thought-provoking piece on, say, the comics—and the books the library offers which are both interesting and attractive. But not everything you do and say about the library has to be profound. An item from a book on your shelves might provide a tiny box or filler for the newspaper which would be readable and informative, as well as good publicity for the library. (Of course you must say the information came from a specified source in the library.) Is today the birthday of somebody famous? Do you have books about him in the library? How did Groundhog Day begin? How far is it to the moon? How fast does light travel? If you plant strawberries this week, will the plants bear fruit this season? How is a slipknot made? These are ideas at random, any one of which might make a usable note for a newspaper or magazine. You can produce dozens and dozens about many phases of adult education if you stop to think about it. Why not jot them down, and have them ready for your publicity programme? And ask the rest of your staff to add to the list.

Most of the precautions and suggestions that apply to newspapers also apply to magazines published locally, although magazines may

offer somewhat different openings for library publicity from those of newspapers, especially when planning with the editor results in special articles or features. Frequently, however, magazines will use informative or interesting fillers, and if you provide a supply of such fillers, the results may be encouraging. Be sure to consider particularly the subject field of the periodical before sending items for publication. If it is a society magazine, for instance, you would hardly send an item about new books on diesel engines; on the other hand, such a note would be entirely appropriate in some scientific sheet.

Radio offers many opportunities for co-operation and publicity in addition to actual broadcasting, and even the community without a radio station can participate freely. First of all there are the programmes which the library calls to the attention of its patrons as especially worthy of their interest; usually, the library exhibits books on related subjects. This can be a lively co-operative venture between the library and the radio station, if the programmes have educational value.

Another important part the library can play in radio, if there is a station in your locality, is to provide reference material, answers to questions, and other items, for the local announcers and programme lhiefs. Unless a station is very large it will hardly have a library big enough to supply all the data it needs. In return for information from the library, the station undoubtedly will aid in the library's radio publicity, perhaps even to the extent of putting library programmes on the air. Many libraries have been most successful with broadcasting, but it is well to go cautiously here. A good radio script casting only 15 minutes on the air may easily take a full day to prepare. Unless your listening audience is large, this may be too great a proportion of time to spend on that particular audience. But if the station will help you, will aid in the planning of the programme and in putting it on the air, your time will be well spent.

Spot announcements—brief notices read by the announcer between other programmes—are used by some libraries. They take comparatively little time to prepare, and do not require a staff member to go to the radio station, as the announcer reads one whenever time is available. Some libraries feel that spots are valuable enough to pay for, but this is done infrequently, and most libraries are successful in getting at least an occasional spot announcement on their local stations.

Do not fail to congratulate the staff of the radio station upon a particularly fine broadcast, especially an educational one. This

may encourage them to aid with your adult education programme. Do not hesitate to ask your radio manager what he can use about adult education, and have several suggestions ready in case he is interested. These might include interviews with local persons who have benefited from adult education classes; descriptions of the work in some of the classes; problems to be considered and worked on; and invitations to others in the community to participate.

Don't take yourself too seriously—and the more imagination, the better your exhibits will be. Don't spend too much time on details, such as posters. If you really need a poster, you will probably find you can coax the art department of the school to co-operate with you.

In working out displays, use plenty of imagination as well as all the new ideas you can find. Look at the department stores and drugstore windows. Sometimes they even have parts of displays which you can borrow later. Prepared letters, of composition or cardboard, are far more effective than any you can draw, and while they do require an outlay in the beginning, they can be used over and over so long that they eventually cost practically nothing, as compared with your time if you were to draw them. You will find, too, that a somewhat crude exhibit can be even more effective than an intricately detailed one. A piece of paper, torn irregularly out of a bright sheet, can make a striking background for some ready-to-put-up letters. Add books to taste, and your display can literally be a matter of but a few minutes. Always remember that your job is to get books read, not to make fancy exhibits. Every moment you can save from doing these clerical tasks means more time for readers who need your help.

Some booklists defy one to pick them up and look them over. Others are as difficult to resist. Why? Style. As Glanvill said. "There is nothing in words and styles but suitableness that makes them acceptable and effective." This is especially applicable to booklists and flyers. They can, and should, be totally different, one from another, each depending upon the audience to which it is to go, the purpose for which it is intended.

Plan the audience before planning the booklist or flyer. Then make the booklist or flyer to fit the audience. Don't try to appeal to too wide an audience with a single piece of publicity. It only loses its effectiveness for all groups. But try eventually to reach all groups in the community with some of your adult education publicity.

How much to say and how to say it, is the STYLE of the booklist or flyer, and depends upon the audience. Don't publish a list just because it is attractive: don't publish it unless it meets a specific

need. Shenstone remarked that "persons are often misled in regard to their choice of dress by attending to the beauty of colours, rather than selecting such colours as may increase their own beauty". Remember it's the usefulness and effectiveness of the booklist or flyer that matters.

Cost is often given as an excuse for a poor booklist or flyer, but it is never the reason that a list is poor: The success of a publicity piece is dependent upon style and upon execution. If funds are not available for expensive or elaborate execution, it must be done inexpensively. There are many ideas that cost nothing but add immensely to the effectiveness of a folder: first of all, colour, which can be introduced in the paper as well as the ink. Then there are tricks of folding which make a folder look more sumptuous or inviting or interesting. Above all, it must be neatly or "cleanly" reproduced. Nothing we have discovered to be essential to good style is expensive. Why not then, adapt good-style features to low-cost publicity?

If we take an impartial view, we are forced to the conclusion that library reports are *not* generally interesting to most people. Our problem is how to make them so.

Many libraries have taken a good photograph for the cover, but then comes the usual tedium—the full, unadapted report inside. This is misleading to the reader who, encouraged by the cover, picks it up with interest. Condensed reports are popular. They are better than long ones, more attractive to look at, and get better reader attention; but this is a doubtful approach unless very well done. When newspapers help to plan the feature, and not merely print the report as a courtesy to the library, interesting points are apt to be stressed.

What reports of companies not directly concerned with you do you pick up and read with pleasure? Not many perhaps, but those you do are those that are especially planned to appeal to you, not merely to give the record of happenings during the past year. Queens Borough Public Library, in their report, "Who—Me?" transfers interest *to the reader*. Standard Oil Company presents its usual full report, but every page has photographs of employees, thus changing the focus of interest from the company *to the people*.

Pictorial statistics are another good venture. It is not too expensive to have them done, and well worth it if there is a special event or project. An outstanding example of popular pictorial presentation of simplified "statistics" is Don Herold's cartoon report for General Mills, starting off with the query. "Who got the $ 217,000,000?" and telling everyone who "ate a bowl of Wheaties between 1 June

of last year and 31 May of this year". Through ten clever cartoons, each with only a four-line caption, the reader gets the story of General Mills products, volume of business, activity in war work, and proportions of incomes spent for raw materials, salaries, power and maintenance, taxes, dividends, and profit. It is instructive, informative, and *interesting*. Goodreports are good publicity, and serve as introductions to the organization far more than as mere bearers of information. Why not popularize libraries from the outsider's or non-librarian's point of view?

Distribution is not a part of style, but it is important. Get the good reports where they will do the most good—in meetings, out in the community where they will introduce the library, as well as in the library for the "old faithfuls" to use as bookmarks in the books they would borrow, with or without the stimulus of the report.

The first responsibility of speaking for and about the library, lies with the librarian as head of the staff. But only the first. After that come *all* the other staff members, each with his or her own particular personality and interest, which may perhaps fit into a certain type of meeting. Only when the library is represented by its whole staff can its services expand to include every opportunity open to it. No one librarian or staff member can reach all the organizations in the community. It isn't nearly as effective, from the community's viewpoint, to have the same person go everywhere, as to have a certain staff member, selected for his or her special interest or knowledge, appear before a local group. And it makes a much friendlier atmosphere in the library for residents to see familiar faces when they come inside for the first time.

If your library is small and if all the staff members come in contact with the public, it will be easier to get them to speak before local groups than in a larger institution, where the cataloguer, for instance, does nothing but classify and catalogue the books. That is where the ingenuity of the librarian comes in. Most of her staff members have special clubs to which they belong, special interests which absorb their leisure time, special hobbies. Get these staff members to introduce the library to the members, to invite them to come to inspect its books and its services, and to act in general as official liaison members. Soon you will find that many groups in the community are becoming aware of the library's efforts in adult education, and are in turn ready to work with you.

It is vital that all your staff know what publicity is in progress. Nothing is so crippling to your service—or so infuriating—as to put time and effort into an exhibit or project, only to have other

staff members fail to know about it, and give no information, or wrong information, to your patrons.

How can you acquaint the rest of the library staff with your problems and plans? For one thing, discuss your ideas with them as widely as possible, enlisting their interest. If they are interested, they will aid and abet your plans. But naturally you cannot talk things over with everybody, so *before* any new plan goes into effect, be sure that *all* staff members, in every department and branch, are informed. This can be done at staff meetings, or by notices on a staff bulletin board, or circulated among the staff. Be as friendly and informal as you can in these announcements and notices, in keeping with your relationship to the staff. The friendlier the staff, the better you will all work together.

In all your various means of publicity—with all your publics—never worry about repeating your ammunition too often. Direct mail experts have found that once a month is definitely not too frequently to put a single message before your public. And you will invariably find, they tell us, that after sending out your message half a dozen times, some of the recipients will ask you why you never told them about it before!

There are many other possibilities for publicizing your programme, but these are sufficient as a means of getting started. You will no doubt find that if you pursue these channels of publicity assiduously, other opportunities will present themselves as you go along. And your publicity will be like a snowball—tiny at first, but getting larger and larger as it rolls along.

CHAPTER VII

EVALUATING THE LIBRARY'S PROGRAMME

Working Paper prepared by
CYRIL O. HOULE [1]

IN A LIBRARY, as in any other human enterprise, it is necessary to know what one wishes to do before one can decide how well one has done. Conscious and careful evaluation of accomplishment can come only after those responsible for the library have achieved a clear understanding of what its goals should be.

The objectives which motivate the behaviour of men may be clear or obscure, general or specific, permanent or transitory, consistent or contradictory, written or unwritten—but they are always present. One librarian may never formulate a clear-cut statement of aims but still operate the library in a fashion which is thoroughly consistent with his basic stock of ideas. Another librarian may say that he has certain goals in mind and yet aet in such a way that it is clear he is tending in an entirely different direction. The keen observer of a library's practice and of the feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of its staff can very quickly infer what it wishes to get done. If the staff wishes only to draw "the better class of people" into the library, it will count with pleasure the members of the social elite who enter its doors and with dismay those who do not. If it wishes, on the other hand, to broaden the range of borrowers, the staff will take pride in the number and diversity of background and interest of new patrons. If it feels that the library should serve the people of the community only in terms of their expressed interests, the absence of complaint is the best index of success. If it hopes, on the contrary, that the library will be the instrument of community improvement, it will look eagerly for any indications of betterment that may be traced to library influence.

The first step in any programme of evaluation, therefore, is to state in clear and unambiguous terms what goals are sought. If the object is to measure the effectiveness of the whole work of the library, it will be necessary to consider the entire range of its broad and

1. Dean of University College, The University of Chicago; Director of the Malmö Seminar.

fundamental aims. If the object is, instead, to evaluate some specific campaign or programme, the aim, since it is less comprehensive, may be stated more specifically and concretely. But, in any case, the clarity and precision of measurement will depend on the exactness with which the aim is stated. The objective "to educate the community" is so broad and general that it is almost useless for purposes of measurement. The objective "to help the parents of the community know better how to raise their children" is still rather general in form but it does indicate to some degree what action should take place and what measurement of results may be used. The objective "to establish effective working contact with all organized parent education groups in the community" is still more useful. General goals can aid in pointing the broad direction which is desired but effective action takes place only when they are analysed and made specific.

Experts in the making of plans and the formulation of goals have many other rules and techniques which they know to be effective. The measurement of accomplishment is so integrally related to the statement of aims that all of the rules of the latter have relevance for the former. One example may serve to illustrate this point: Objectives are far more effective as guides to action if they are made co-operatively by those who carry them out. He who has had a share in deciding what is to be done is clearly more interested in doing it than he who has had a duty imposed from above. Similarly it follows that he will be more interested in measuring the quantity or quality of his performance.

Once goals are established, a librarian has an impressively large variety of techniques to use. There are at least 10 kinds of evaluative measures which are now in use.

The first and most familiar are objective measures of the use of the library and its various services. Librarians the world over collect certain basically similar statistics: number of persons registered, number of borrowers, number of persons coming to the library, number of books or other materials circulated, number of meetings held at the library, attendance at meetings sponsored by the library, and number of different outside groups served. These basic statistics are useful chiefly as indicating the gross service of the library. To the librarian who is interested only in extending service, however, they may be a completely satisfactory form of measurement.

The second kind of measurement is also rather widely applied. It is the analysis of objective measures according to a classification system. Most librarians make some scrutiny of their circulation figures to learn the relative popularity of various categories of books.

Some are content to distinguish between fiction and non-fiction while others analyse circulation by more detailed subject-matter groups. Some librarians tabulate various facts about their borrowers, most frequently by occupation or geographic location. Tabulations are also occasionally made of the nature of the voluntary groups served. Some librarians use these analyses of objective measures simply as a kind of continuing record of their work; others, however, look closely at them to learn what they indicate of success or failure. A library staff which is attempting to build up its use of books on health will be deeply interested in seeing whether that use actually increases. In similar fashion, librarians who wish to reach new segments of the population which have not been previously served will be interested in a study of the composition of their borrowers.

The third kind of measurement is the comparison of the objective figures of library use with external totals or categories. The librarian who calculates what percentage of the people of the community are active borrowers is using a measure of this sort, as is the librarian who compares the occupation, educational level, or geographic spread of his borrowers to that of the total population. The acceptance of the importance of such measures implies that the library has an importance for all of the people of its community and that its success may be ascertained at least in part by determining how much of the community and what part of the community is to be served.

A fourth form of measurement is the calculation of cost or service indices. A librarian may wish to apply techniques of careful analysis to the internal work of the library in order to determine its efficiency. The cataloguer of a library may wish, for example, to find out how long it takes to catalogue the average book or what the cataloguing cost is per book. The circulation department may wish to apply similar cost figures or it may want to determine the service load for each hour of the day or each day of the week. Cost and service analyses are particularly useful if they can be compared with experience in other similar libraries.

A fifth form of measurement is the analysis of community statistics to see whether they reflect library programmes. If a library staff determines to do something about reducing the incidence of tuberculosis in its community, the statistics on the number of people who contract tuberculosis should decrease. In similar fashion, other gross factors of the same sort may be used. There are obvious difficulties with the use of such broad indices. They do not change very rapidly. It is hard to prove conclusively that the change was caused by the library's programme. And, ironically enough, the indices may

go in a reverse direction from that expected. For example, the number of cases of reported tuberculosis may rise rather than decline. This unexpected result occurs because the public becomes aware of a problem and takes more immediate steps to do something about it. Despite these difficulties in using community indices, it must be remembered that eventually they should change as a result of educational activities and it is well for librarians to examine the indices at least so far as the long rather than the short run is concerned. It is also true that if the library's programme is a part of a cooperative programme, the speed of change may be accelerated.

It may be possible to use this fifth form in a more refined way, particularly in smaller communities or in branches that serve clearly marked groups of people. A specialist in health may, for example, enlist the aid of the library in solving some particular community problem, and it may be possible fairly quickly to see whether it has been solved. A country librarian may, in similar fashion, work with agricultural authorities to find what emphases they believe to be essential.

A sixth form of measurement is the systematic collection of subjective judgments. This technique may be used in very broad or very specific ways. A librarian with adequate funds to do so might engage a specialist in public opinion polls to make a scientific analysis of the attitude of the people of the community toward the library. If such a survey could be made on a periodical basis, there would be an excellent measurement of the total impact of the public library on all of the people. A much less expensive, though less scientific, method would be the use of questionnaires which might be mailed to a large number of the citizens. If the library wishes to know the reactions of its patrons—as distinguished from those of the community at large—it might ask then to answer a questionnaire. A simpler questionnaire might be used to determine the opinion of the patrons concerning any particular service or activity; some libraries, for example, follow a regular practice of giving out an evaluation form at the close of every public meeting held by the library. The library staff may also secure the opinions of the public or its patrons by the use of interviews with selected persons. Such interviews, which can ordinarily be held with only a small number of people must be planned and carried out very carefully if satisfactory results are to be obtained.

A seventh form of measurement is the making of case studies. Some librarians think it is very useful to analyze with great care a small number of cases rather than to survey only very generally

a large number. If a library staff were to decide to try to influence patrons to be more effective users of library service, it might select a relatively small number of people who take out books at random and see what could be done to make them more purposeful readers. An honest appraisal at the end of a year might give very great assistance to the planning of more general programmes designed to accomplish this same end. One might also study the changes wrought by particular programmes of library service on the self-selected reading of participants. Do those people, for example, who participate in a programme designed to elevate literary tastes, choose better books for their recreational reading when the programme is over? Readers' advisers who operate entirely on an individualized basis use the case method of evaluation almost entirely. Their greatest aid in the improvement of their work ordinarily comes in their review of what has happened to individuals as a result of the guided reading programmes they have followed.

The eighth form is the directed judgment of the staff. If the group of people who have been responsible for developing a programme sit down together at its conclusion and ask themselves how well they have succeeded and wherein they have failed, the results will ordinarily be most illuminating and lead to further programmes. To be most effective, the discussion should be built around an analysis of each objective which has been accepted and each working principle which may have been agreeed upon. Let us assume, for example, that is has been decided to introduce a programme of audio-visual aids and the specific goals for the first year have been stated as follows: (1) to build up an initial collection of films which will have broad usefulness; (2) to establish contact with groups in the community which might wish to use films; (3) so far as concentration is possible within the film-buying budget, to concentrate on materials having implications for parent-education; (4) to work out effective arrangements for renting and borrowing films from outside and for scheduling their use; and (5) to train a group of community volunteers in the use of audio-visual equipment. At the close of the year, a staff can take these objectives, point by point, and make fairly good judgments about how well each has been achieved. When it has done so, it will be in a good position to decide what it wishes to do the following year.

The ninth form is the selection of important incident. In the dynamics of library operation, many things happen, some of which seem to have more significance than others. If an outstanding community leader, who has never used the library, begins to do so, the

librarian rejoices. If, in a budget hearing, the librarian encounters apathy on the part of the officials holding the hearing, he feels dismay. If a delegation calls on the librarian to protest the inclusion of a book in the collection, he is faced—perhaps for the first time—with the question of censorship. Such incidents might give rise to further exploration and lead to the adoption of new objectives. In the second of the three cases, for example, the librarian would certainly, if he is wise, determine to make the budget officials more aware of the importance of the library. The effective analysis of important incidents is one of the most rewarding forms of library evaluation.

Finally, the library staff may evaluate its work in terms of increased or decreased resources. In such a case, the staff may appraise, at the close of a year, just how much more or how much less it has to work with than it did at the beginning. Has the budget been cut? Has a campaign to secure funds to build a new library been successful? Has the quality of the staff been improved? Have more efficient procedures for circulating books been worked out? Has the professional staff been relieved of clerical work it should not perform?

The final three forms of measurement are almost completely subjective in character and they must therefore be used with full awareness of the difficulties which subjectivity always brings with it. When the sole criterion of success is personal judgment there is always the danger of biassed opinion.

If these subjective forms are used wisely, however, they can be of the greatest use. It is suggested that certain general rules be used in handling them. First, they should never be used when objective measures are available, and they should constantly be corrected by any available objective data. Second, their use should follow a definite plan. If, for example, a library staff is to add up its gains or losses for the year at a meeting, there should be advance notice of the subject to be discussed and, if possible, the discussion should be guided so that there is some systematic consideration of the various oversights or over-emphases. Finally, subjective measures require time and continuous thought quite as much as objective measures do. One does not sit down at the end of the year and try to remember how many books have been circulated. One sets up a system of notation, so that at the end of the year the information is cumulatively available. If one could try to record significant incidents as they occur, the annual accumulation might be far more significant than the circulation figures.

In the course of enumerating the various types of evaluation, certain more general principles, which apply to all types, have been

implied. It would be well, perhaps, to draw these out and make them explicit.

Evaluation is most effective if it is systematic. To be of greatest use, it must be a continuing part of the programme of the library. Librarians have generally accepted this principle so far as the basic statistics of library use are concerned, but they have not followed it in their collection of other evaluative data.

The library staff should undertake only as much special evaluative activity as it can handle comfortably. Otherwise, evaluation will become an end in itself and lose its true function. The librarian who places the collection of statistics above the service to his community will eventually have no statistics to collect. Systems of complete evaluation, carried out with rigorous objectivity, are not within the reach of many, or even most, libraries. As a result, some librarians go to the other extreme of doing nothing at all, and therefore can never say whether their work is of any use. Evaluation should be a part of a total library programme, and it should be fitted within that programme. As is frequently the case, a modest beginning may lead to the possibility of continually expanding accomplishment, which would, at first, have appeared impossible. It is of great importance, however, never to try to do more than can be done effectively and well.

Finally, it must constantly be remembered that the chief end of evaluation is the improvement of programme. One surveys the past in order to plan more effectively for the future. Was too much attempted? If so, next year's goals must be reduced or new resources must be found. Was too little attempted? If so, the sights for next year must be higher. Were the wrong techniques used? If so, they must be changed. Has the task been completed? If so, new directions of activity must be planned. The answering of these and other questions about the past always has implications for the future.

It is obvious, perhaps, that evaluation aids progress by improving the efficiency of the staff. It is equally true that programmes of evaluation improve morale. The members of a staff find that they can take pride in at least some part of their work, and that fact sustains them through the periods of depression which they may sometimes have. Also, if the evaluation is done co-operatively, there usually grows up a spirit of friendly collaboration tempered by frankness and objectivity which perhaps can be achieved in no other way. Such a spirit is one of the greatest assets a library can have.

PART THREE

AUDIO-VISUAL METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

(GROUP II)

There are no public library problems in my country; there are no public libraries.

—A participant.

CHAPTER VIII

THE LIBRARY AS A CENTRE WHERE ADULTS CAN AVAIL THEMSELVES OF ALL COMMUNICATION MEDIA

AT ONE of the opening sessions of the Seminar, Mr. Lachlan F. MacRae, leader of Group II, gave an address to the entire group of participants. He defined the basic considerations which, in his judgment, must lead the library to become a centre where adults can avail themselves of all communication material. Since his remarks served as the basis for the work of the Seminar on this subject, a digest of his address is appropriate as an introduction to this chapter.

INTRODUCTION

A few weeks ago a prominent American university professor gave a brilliant speech on the evils of television. As a great believer in the value, in the world of today, of *Le silence et le recueillement*, he expressed his fear that television spells the doom of modern man's opportunity to indulge in it. He advocated the phrase as a motto which might well appear over the portals of the public library.

At the same conference another speaker, this time a children's librarian, expressed the same fear of television, but advocated an approach on the part of librarians which would be more acceptable to most of us here. Her attitude is that we must recognize that television is with us to stay, whether we like it or not, that it can be a great positive force for human enlightenment, but that it will never serve this function if those people who recognize its potency are satisfied to stand by and call down curses upon it for its negative aspects. Better that we should do our part to assess its present and future good aspects and follow this assessment with a dynamic effort to do our part in nurturing what is good.

The first man who opened a library loan desk across which his fellow citizens in all walks of life might borrow books for home reading was undoubtedly considered by his contemporary librarians to be a very dangerous experimenter. Just so it was, not much more

than a decade ago, when librarians first stepped into the field of films, recordings and other communication materials. And perhaps it is being too liberal to say a decade. For even today there are some who look upon work in the field of the mass media as a dangerous experiment and waste of public funds.

The process of experimentation always involves a fair degree of wastage. It may therefore be that the pioneers in the audio-visual library field are open to some condemnation. But it should not come from their fellow librarians. That phase should be just about over. For the hard words of a professional colleague sting far more sharply than does the suspicion of the men who place financial economy ahead of community values.

In this group of librarians from all parts of the world are people who have had experience in the use of all the modern media of communication, and there are some who have not, as yet, ventured into the new fields beyond the printed word. But we all have one thing in common: we recognize the tremendous significance of the process called adult education and are vitally concerned that our libraries should play their proper role in its development.

It is too much to say that a library must, of absolute necessity, seize eagerly upon the new communication aids as a *sine qua non* of effective work in the field of adult education, for many libraries are doing dynamic work without the help of the mass media. It may be said, however, that no librarian is adequately prepared for the demands which he or she may be called upon to meet unless there is an awareness of the power and limitations of the new aids, a knowledge of utilization methods and techniques, a working knowledge of the methods of relating the audio-visual aids with established library methods and an ability to judge when local conditions are such as to demand that the facilities of the library to disseminate knowledge and information should be enhanced by the adoption of new materials.

There are a few key ideas which Group II should be able to discuss during the coming weeks before it reports its findings to the entire Seminar. They are:

First, audio-visual aids are a logical extension of the informational function of the library and cannot be neglected if the end of disseminating knowledge and information is to be adequately served.

Second, because of the physical nature and cost of these aids, and the danger to library standards which springs from their great popular appeal, it is essential that the librarian should consider the over-all effect of their adoption upon his institution. He should above

all be satisfied that the community is prepared to use the new tools effectively.

Third, the obvious public-relations value of the films and other audio-visual aids should be placed second to their contribution, through the library, to better human relations within the community.

Fourth, there are minimum, median and maximum programmes of audio-visual work which any librarian should consider thoroughly before making any decision for or against starting a programme.

Fifth, for all but the largest libraries it is essential that there be a willingness on the part of community workers to co-operate with the library in the programme. This brings up the subject of such devices as volunteer aid, film councils, and evaluation panels.

Sixth, the process of film selection differs from that of book selection because the film is seen by a group. Therefore the librarian should make use of expert opinion in the community to an extent never demanded by the book.

Seventh, the physical handling of audio-visual aids raises problems which must be met realistically. It is foolish to labour the idea that because films and other audio-visual aids may serve the same end as books, they should be handled identically. Further, the formula which may suit a large, well-staffed library may be completely unsuited to a smaller library.

Eighth, it is likewise foolish to insist upon the idea of "tying the book to the film" or *vice versa:* the broad view of a subject given by a film may, in that it is given to the many, be just as important, from the community standpoint, as is the deeper knowledge gained from the book and given to the few.

Ninth, a knowledge of group techniques on the part of the librarian is just as important as the acquisition of materials for group education, for by this knowledge the true value of all the communication media can be realized. That is, librarians can only play their true role in the adult education programme if they know how the group reacts to books, films, filmstrips, radio, television and other media.

Finally, in a large library, in a large community, it may be enough for a librarian to fill the traditional role of a custodian of informational materials: books, films, maps, or anything else. But the librarian of today has gained recognition as an educator and this involves an active, not merely a passive participation. In the smaller community, where there may be no other person upon whom the burden of guidance may fall, the librarian may have to recognize that he has no choice but to leave the role of custodian and become an educator in the full sense of the word. We must know the methods of mass

education and recognize the signs which indicate that the library may not be doing its part.

THE BIOGRAPHY OF GROUP II

Group II was composed of 14 people. The leader, Mr. MacRae, is Chief Librarian of the Public Library of Fort William, Ontario, Canada. He has long been a pioneer in the use of audio-visual aids by the library, and, because of his early leadership in this field, he has had to face and solve most of the problems which it offers. His work has received wide attention and has inspired other libraries to follow the example of his own. Working with him in the Seminar were 13 participants, of whom only one (from the United States) had had any substantial experience in the use by the library of the newer media of communication. The remainder stand at the threshold of such work. One came from Colombia, three from Denmark, two from France, one from Italy, one from Norway, two from Sweden, and two from Venezuela. Seven of the 13 are the chief librarians of city or county library systems, three are the administrative heads of departments in public libraries, one is a professor of library science, one is a director of a secondary school, and one is cultural attaché at a legation.

The first meetings of the group were devoted to the self-introduction of the participants and to a discussion of the method of procedure which should be followed. The group leader, expecting that the participants would be experts in audio-visual aids, had provided a comprehensive outline of topics, from which he had thought that certain issues might be selected for intensive study. The composition of the group made it apparent that such a plan would not be feasible, since all the participants, except one, felt that they needed a survey and orientation rather than the opportunity to consider advanced problems. After some discussion, therefore, a revised plan was worked out. It was decided that the group leader should go through the outline, giving a comprehensive introduction to each topic in it. There would then be questions and discussion, by the participants. As subjects were broached which aroused interest, committees would be formed for special study of such topics. It was also agreed that individual participants would write papers in the fields of their special interest. As the group reached conclusions and recommendations on various points, it would note them down and transmit them later to the entire Seminar. This plan, in essence, was followed during the entire period that the group met.

It soon became evident that there was a greater interest in the service aspects of audio-visual work in the library than in the handling of various types of equipment. Two meetings were, however, devoted to the explanation of the various pieces of equipment and types of film available at the Seminar, so that all of the group would have some familiarity with them and also in order that a working vocabulary of technical terms acceptable in both the Seminar languages might be established. Various pieces of equipment are called by entirely different names in the various countries; for the sake of bare communication, it was necessary to standardize the form of reference. Other terms are also different. The French and Italians, for example, apply the word "documentary" to describe almost any kind of an educational film, whereas the other countries use the more specific definition given by John Grierson and others. The French and Italian group have no term to describe this more restricted usage, but, instead of attempting to develop one, determined during the course of the Seminar to use the word "documentary" in the same sense as that used by their colleagues from other countries. This desire to have ready communication characterized the whole spirit of Group II. It wished to concentrate on practical library aspects of the audio-visual programmes and leave exact analyses for some later seminar of experts in audio-visual education.

The group agreed that it would be fruitless to labour the question as to whether libraries should or should not undertake the use and distribution of audio-visual aids. The opinion of several participants that at least a good part of the work could not be, or would not be, carried on in their countries was respected by all. Every participant did agree, however, that he should at least know how such work was done in other countries, even if he was not likely to undertake any part of such work himself.

It was early realized that pressure of time would call for limitation of what the group could undertake. The group leader had wished to lay great stress upon the development of standards for evaluating audio-visual materials. When it became evident that the group could not devote much of its own time to the screening of films and the establishment of practice evaluation panels, it was agreed that use would be made for this purpose of the regular film showings which were planned for all Seminar participants on two evenings a week. The group devoted some time on the morning following each showing to criticism of the films. This continuous stress on high standards in film selection for library work had much to do in building the interest and confidence of several members of the group, who had

previously had some doubts of the value of audio-visual aids.

The language difficulties presented no great barrier, particularly since all of the members of the group had at least a smattering of the language other than their own. In only one respect did language cause real deficiency. The group found no convenient and successful way of operating a film forum for a bilingual audience when the sound track of the film must necessarily be in one language. It might be thought that, with such an audience, a film which depends solely upon photography to convey its message might be used. Since such films are ordinarily not on controversial subjects, even this resource fails.

The group was fortunate in having several visitors who shared in and contributed to the discussion. One person who provided particular assistance was Dr. Bertil Lauritzen of the Educational Branch of the Swedish Film Industry.

The group spirit, throughout, although leavened with humour, was studious, serious and intent. The group had an excellent co-operative spirit. Those who had greater technical facility or leadership ability than the others provided substantial stimulation, support, and assistance to their colleagues.

At the close of the seminar, the group leader reported his feeling that:

The members of group II took home with them a fairly practical store of information about the handling of audio-visual materials and the integration of such materials in the adult educational programme. Most of them . . . have a new appreciation of the specific problems involved in handling audio-visuals in the library and will probably now realize the importance of community co-operation in such work. . . .

The French-speaking participants gained a new knowledge of what we refer to as adult education. In the beginning they said quite pointedly that this or that type of work (e.g., film forums, discussion circles) was not for the individualistic Frenchman. However, as the work progressed I feel convinced that the attitude of the other members of the group . . . had the happy result of making these librarians feel that with such things they might be able to build an effective adult educational programme . . . suited to the requirements of their people. The final conclusion was also good: that at the very least the French public library should be identified in some way with any form of adult education, audio-visual or otherwise, being pursued in the community.

As a result of their deliberations, the members of Group II agreed

on certain points which may be stated in the form of conclusions.

1. Audio-visual aids logically come within the scope of the modern public library in that they form a very important body of materials for use in education at all levels.

Therefore it is reasonable that any librarian, whether he uses audio-visual aids or not, should be given, as part of his professional training, a sound knowledge of audio-visual materials and methods. This training seems to the members of the group to be of specific value for those doing public library work.

2. Since the cost of audio-visual aids may be relatively high, since the problems of their physical handling differ from those involved in the circulation of books, and since the popular appeal of films, etc., carries with it a certain danger to library standards, the group agrees on the following as a general principle: The librarian who plans to establish an audio-visual service involving the purchase of films, recordings, projection equipment, etc., should first apply the criteria accepted in planning the general adult educational role of the particular library and make a survey to determine the needs and probable use of such materials and their relative importance in the library's whole programme of adult education. For from such a survey may come some knowledge as to how effectively the community will be able to use the audio-visual aids, what authorities outside the library are able to help towards effective utilization and how heavy will be the strain upon the facilities of the library itself.

3. That the audio-visual service of the library might fall within one of three main categories, based upon the extent of the service:

(*a*) The *minimum* programme (which the group would commend to all libraries) in which the library stops at establishing an effective community film informational service.

(*b*) The *median* programme (which will also embody the minimum suggested) in which the library would make full use of the audio-visual aids within its own programme of adult education. This would include public showings of films, concerts on records, radio broadcasts, etc., under the direct sponsorship of the library, and,

(*c*) The *maximum* programme, under which, in addition to rendering the first two types of service, the library would circulate the audio-visual materials, with or without the necessary projectors, etc., for the use of groups or of individuals outside the library.

It is the feeling of the group that from the very beginning of a library service the minimum programme at least should be undertaken.

4. It is important that the librarian doing audio-visual work

should co-operate as far as possible with those in the community who are willing and able to help in making the service effective. This would involve a knowledge of such organizations as the community film council and the use of expert advice and group opinion in the evaluation of films, etc. It is felt too that librarians should co-operate to the fullest in the work of film evaluation at a national level.

5. Since the problems of cataloguing, classifying and otherwise handling audio-visual materials differ from those involved in the handling of books, it is important that librarians should endeavour to adopt methods which may be widely applied. This would facilitate the publication on a mass production basis of standard cards, forms, etc. Further, such a standardization would serve to develop a more effective inter-library and international exchange of audio-visual materials.

6. Though the library may offer only the minimum audio-visual service, or perhaps none at all, it is important that the library, as a source of information on all topics of community interest, should be identified with the progress of all groups which do make use of audio-visual materials within the community.

7. Librarians interested in the use of films in adult education should become fully aware of the techniques developed for their use in formal education. Since the greatest possible adaptation of such techniques to adult groups seems very desirable, it is suggested that various organizations which in the past have trained teachers for such work might be asked wherever possible to extend their services to the field of adult education. Furthermore it is agreed that the library schools should call upon producing organizations who have sponsored this type of training in the past, whether private or governmental, for expert advice on such matters.

8. Those charged with the designing of new buildings for libraries and these concerned with the design of vehicles for travelling library service should be urged to keep in mind the possibility of including in their plan due provision for the proper use and distribution of audio-visual aids as well as of books.

9. Although the members of group II realize that television as a medium of mass communication is within the experience of very few librarians at the present time they are also convinced that within a few years television will be as widely available as is radio today. Therefore it is felt that librarians everywhere should keep a close watch on developments as they may have a bearing on library work in all its phases. For the present, the experience acquired by the

few and the work being done today will provide a pattern for future work in countries which do not as yet have widespread television broadcasting.

THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF GROUP II

The members of Group II recommend:

1. That Unesco should, with the help of the various National Commissions, publish a list of the films available in each country through the various embassies, legations, informational libraries, and other agencies maintained in that country by Member States. And that further, the Member States should strive in every way possible to use these offices to facilitate the international loan of films and other audio-visual aids as instruments of international understanding. And, further, that it should be the concern of Unesco and of the National Commissions to work towards the removal of barriers to such international interchange, including especially the alleviation of customs regulations.

2. That Unesco consider the future possibility of publishing an international list of selected films of universal interest and usefulness in the field of adult education.

3. That in countries where the practice is not already established, Unesco should impress upon the National Commissions the importance of encouraging their governments to deposit with public libraries films of adult educational value produced by, or for, the various governmental departments.

4. That all library associations should be urged, where they have not done so already, to form audio-visual committees or sections as part of their permanent organization and that it shall be the main function of such committees or sections to correlate information, evaluate new materials, generally to keep the association apprised of progress, and to work for the establishment of high audio-visual standards within the scope of the association.

5. That where library legislation exists which limits the public libraries to the distribution of books and other printed materials only, the library associations should endeavour to have these library laws amended in such a manner as to include within the list of legitimate library materials the audio-visual aids such as films, filmstrips and recordings.

6. That instruction in the use of audio-visual materials in the public library should become standard practice in all schools of librarianship.

CHAPTER IX

CLASSIFICATION OF SLIDE FILMS AND MOTION PICTURES

by

H. R. Wei [1]

TO BE USED EFFECTIVELY, educational slide films and motion pictures must be properly classified. The system of classification depends on the size and type of collection and the type of service that is expected. The purpose of this paper is to recommend the use of the Universal Decimal Classification to classify educational films, which include motion pictures, filmstrips and slides, and to introduce a system of call numbers, giving necessary information for each film.

SYSTEMS IN USE

A survey of the systems of cataloguing that are in use shows that an alphabetical list of the films according to their titles is the universal practice. As it is very convenient for the public to locate a film when its title is known, this practice of listing films by titles either in the form of a list or a set of cards should be continued. Titles, however, are evidently not a satisfactory basis for classification.

In each case there is also a subject classification. Most film libraries use their own list of subjects. A few libraries use the Dewey system. The most complete catalogues on educational motion pictures and filmstrips, *Educational Film Guide* and *Filmstrip Guide*, published by the H. W. Wilson Company, use the Dewey system. The Jam Handy Organization, one of the largest producers of filmstrips, has recently begun to print Dewey numbers on its filmstrips. In 1948, the conference on visual aids in education under the auspices of the Australian Office of Education recommended "that a modified Dewey classification be adopted".[2]

1. Director, Project on Audio-visual Education, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.
2. *Library Classification of Educational Films. News of Visual Aids in Education*, October 1949, Commonwealth Office of Education, Australia.

Margaret I. Rufsvold in her book, *Audio-Visual School Library Service*, [1] recommends the use of either the Dewey classification or some identification number with subject classification according to Minnie Sear's *List of Subject Headings for Small Libraries*. She also recommends the following notations to be used as part of call numbers to denote the different kinds of audio-visual materials: [2]

F — film
FS — filmstrip
SL — standard slide
SM — 2" × 2" slide
ST — stereograph
R — 10" and 12" record
LP — long playing record
V — Victor 45 r.p.m. record
T — 16" transcription

Britain's Educational Foundation for Visual Aids, a national organization for the utilization of visual aids, has rejected the Dewey classification and worked out a new decimal classification for films and filmstrips. Its method of assigning numbers is very similar to that of Dewey, but according to Dr. Harrison, Director of the Foundation, "in the Foundation's new classification each topic is represented by a three-digit number, not in any way related to the Dewey numbering".[3] The purpose of the Foundation's new classification is to serve the teacher; as its first requirement Dr. Harrison says, "Subject divisions should be readily comprehensible to the teacher; i.e., the subjects should be grouped as they generally are in schools".[4]

The Foundation uses the letters of the alphabet to denote the various kinds of visual aids, but the assignment is entirely arbitrary. Its assignment is as follows :[5]

A. Sound film in black and white
B. Silent film in black and white
C. Mute film in black and white
D. Sound film in colour
E. Silent film in colour
F. Mute film in colour
G. Filmstrip in black and white
H. Filmstrip in colour

1. Margaret I. Rufsvold. *Audio-visual School Library Service*, American Library Association, Chicago, 1949.
2. *Ibid*, pp. 57-58.
3. J. A. Harrison, *Library Classification of Educational Films*, *The Film User*, June 1949.
4. *Ibid.*
5. *Ibid.*

J. Loop film, sound in black and white
K. Loop film, silent in black and white
L. Loop film, sound and colour
M. Loop film, silent and colour.

To identify a film or filmstrip within a given classification and type, the Foundation uses the order of appearance of the film or filmstrip in its catalogue. For example, the catalogue entry for the film, *Norwegian Harvest*, is given as 432 B6, where 432 denotes the subject classification, B indicates that it is a silent film in black and white, and the number 6 is given because it is the sixth item on its subject in the catalogue.

REQUIREMENTS OF FILM CLASSIFICATION

Any system for classifying slide films and motion pictures should be a practical piece of machinery for the rapid arrangement, filing and finding of these visual materials. It is a series of pigeon-holes into which the materials may be fitted. In general there are the following requirements to any system of classification of slide films and motion pictures:

1. *Types of visual materials.* For practical purposes, slide films and motion pictures should be classified into motion pictures, filmstrips and slides, often with sub-divisions in each group.

2. *Subject classification.* Each type of visual material is to be classified according to subjects.

3. *Identification number.* As there will be usually more than one item of visual material within each type and subject, it is necessary to have some notation to identify each of them separately. In the case of books the names of authors according to Cutter or Cutter-Sanborn numbers are used to serve this purpose.

4. *Language.* In addition, it is sometimes necessary to include language classification in the cases of sound slide films and motion pictures because some films have versions in different languages and many film libraries have films of different languages.

IMPORTANCE OF AN INTERNATIONAL SYSTEM

Pictures in themselves are universal; more and more slide films and motion pictures are being used internationally. It is very important to encourage the international exchange of these visual materials

and promote their use in bringing about international understanding and co-operation. It is also very important to make the wealth of slide-films and motion pictures of the more advanced countries available to the rest of the world. To these ends it is desirable to have an international system of film classification.

In the consideration of an international system for classifying slide films and motion pictures, it is recommended that the valuable experience of book classification be made use of. Films and books are very similar in their nature and purpose. They both are, in fact, teaching aids as far as we are concerned in the scope of this paper. The best system for the classification of books for a given purpose should be adopted for the classification of slide films and motion pictures for the same purpose.

PROPOSALS FOR FILM CLASSIFICATION

The proposals presented in the following paragraphs are based on extensive studies of the needs of film libraries, and of the methods of classification now in use both in respect to films and in respect to books. There is to be a call number for each slide film or motion picture. Each call number is divided into two parts: one is the classification number giving the type and subject classification, and the language used in case it is sound; the other is the identification number to denote its place within a given type and classification. For the identification numbers, the Cutter-Sanborn numbers are to be used; when motion pictures are stocked according to the number of reels, a numerical coefficient, 1, 2, 3, or 4 denoting the number of reels, is introduced in the identification number to facilitate the filing of the films. The details of the system may be described as follows:

The Classification Number. It is recommended that the Universal Decimal Classification be used for subject classification. The UDC, very often referred as the Brussels system, is the outgrowth of the Dewey system, and is more widely used internationally than any other classification system.

The UDC system has all the advantages of the Dewey system, and is definitely better in the fields of science, technology and geography. It is used by the Science Library of London, the Engineering Sciences Library in New York and the Verein Deutscher Ingenieure in Berlin. The library of the United Nations has also adopted the abridged UDC.

Those who are used to the Dewey system can easily make the change because in most cases the corresponding numbers in the two systems are identical. The UDC has the advantage of being used more extensively internationally and is therefore better for international collaboration.

According to W. C. Berwick Sayers, "The virtues of the Decimal Classification far outweighs its admitted faults. Its accessibility, its hospitality and flexibility, its splendid notation, the constant attention paid to its revision—these factors have given it an unrivalled vogue, and its adoption as the basis of the International Decimal Classification seems to prophesy that it will endure".[1] As the visual materials under our consideration are so very closely related to books and so much work has been done in the development of the UDC it is the most natural course for us to take in making full use of the valuable and extensive experience in the international system for cataloguing books and other types of literary material.

The UDC system is flexible. For small film libraries, the abridged UDC may be used. There are abridged editions of UDC in many languages. An abridged edition of UDC in English is published by the British Standards Institution.[2] To those libraries which are interested in the documentation of films, the UDC system is specially useful, as more than 100,000 subdivisions have been numbered in its tables by international agreement.

A number of objections to the adoption of the UDC or the Dewey system have come from people who are confusing the question of film cataloguing with that of subject index. The index is to help the public to look up the material and is in general made of a list of topics according to subject matter arranged in an alphabetic order. Even when the UDC is used, a film library should have a subject index and a title index of all its visual materials.

Type of Visual Material. In this proposed system of classification, the type of visual material is denoted by a maximum of three letters in front of the UDC number. The first set of letters denotes the major classifications of the types of visual material : "M" = motion picture; "F" = filmstrip; "L" = slides (lantern slides). The second set denotes whether it is sound or silent : "S" = sound-on-film; "R" = record; "T" = tape-recording; when no letter from the set is used it means that it is silent. The third set of letters denotes whether

1. W. C. Berwick Sayers : *An Introduction to Library Classification*, Grafton and Co., London, England, 1946.
2. *Abridged English Edition. Universal Decimal Classification*, The British Standards Institution, London, 1948.

it is colour or black and white: "C" = colour; when no letter from the set is used, it means that it is black and white. Thus, "MSC" means that it is a sound motion picture in colour, while "LRC" means that it is a set of colour slides with records.

Language. It is recommended to adopt the notation of the UDC for language, but, because of the limited number of languages in use with films, to use for the time being, instead of the number of the UDC for the language, the first letter of the name of the language to denote it. Thus, "MSC 575 = E" is the complete classification number denoting that it is a sound motion picture on Evolution with script in the English language.

In the proposed system, when used for classification in the English language, "C" = Chinese; "E" = English; "F" = French; "R" = Russian; "S" = Spanish. These are the five official languages of the United Nations. For any film library that has films in many languages, it is urged that the numbering system of the languages as provided in the UDC be used. For a library using a few languages it is much simpler to use the first letters of the languages instead of the UDC numbers.

The Identification Number. The purpose of the Identification Number is to arrange the items of a given type and subject in some definite order. It is recommended that the Cutter-Sanborn numbers as have been used in the case of books be followed, but instead of the names of the authors those of the producers be substituted. For films, it is more important to know the producers than the authors. Thus, the items on the same subject will be arranged by the producers. If a producer produces more than one item on the same subject, the items are to be arranged as in the case of books, by the same Cutter-Sanborn number and followed by the first significant letters of the titles. For example, the United States Office of Education has produced a number of motion pictures on management, two of which are *Placing the Right Man on the Job* and *Working with Other Supervisors.* The identification numbers of these two films are U5-P and U5-W respectively.

For a film library of ordinary size, it is not necessary to use the three-digit Cutter-Sanborn table. If two producers have the same Cutter-Sanborn number, it is possible to differentiate them by introducing the first letters of the first words in which they are different, e.g., U5A = United States Department of Agriculture; U5M = United States Department of Mines.

It is important to remember that Cutter-Sanborn numbers are not to replace the names of the producers but are merely a convenient

device to identify the films. The list is indicative rather than inclusive. As the number of producers making the same kind of films is usually very small, the question of identification numbers is relatively very simple. Even if all the producers should make one or more films on a given subject the one-digit Cutter-Sanborn num bers would still be adequate to provide the necessary identification numbers.

Sometimes, it may be difficult to determine who is the producer of a film, but, as in the case of books, the producer of a film is defined to be the person or organization that is responsible for its coming into existence.

Number of Reels. Many film libraries file motion picture films of different lengths on different shelves. In such cases, it is usefu- to introduce a numerical coefficient to the identification number. Thus, "3E5" means a film of three reels and "2M4" denotes a film of two reels where "E5" and "M4" are the Cutter-Sanborn numbers for the producers. "1", "2", "3" and "4" are the approximate number of reels according to which the films are classified for filing purposes. In the case of slides, the coefficient may be used to denote the number of slides in the set.

EXAMPLES OF CALL NUMBERS

The classification system in the proposals has been tested with many sections of the Wilson's *Educational Film Guide.* One of the most difficult cases is the section on Machine Tools and Machine Shop Practice. Under this heading are listed 87 films all by one producer: the titles of six of them begin with B, 20 with C, seven with D, eight with F, five with R, seven with S, six with T and six with U. A more detailed subject classification will save the situation. Even as it is, the librarian has practical suggestions to work out the identification numbers.

SUMMARY

The author advocates the adoption of an international system for the classification of educational slide films and motion pictures. It is recommended that the valuable and extensive experience of

book classification be made use of. The Universal Decimal Classification should be used as the basis of subject classification.

A comprehensive system of Call Numbers is introduced, which is flexible and adaptable to the requirements of any individual film library. The Call Number for each slide film or motion picture is to be of two parts: one is called the Classification Number and the other the Identification Number. The Classification Number consists of (1) a group of letters indicating the type of the visual material, whether it is a motion picture, filmstrip, a set of slides, or a set of stereographs, whether it is silent or sound and whether it is in colour or black and white; (2) a UDC number denoting its subject classification; and (3) the language of the script when it is sound. The Identification Number is a Cutter-Sanborn number based on the name of its producer and may include a numerical coefficient to denote the number of reels in the case of motion pictures or to denote the number of slides in the given set of slides.

For each type of visual material, namely, motion pictures, filmstrips, slides, or stereographs, the film library should at least have the following three separate lists: (1) a list according to UDC numbers; (2) a list according to the titles arranged in the alphabetic order; and (3) a list according to subject classification arranged in the alphabetic order.

In discussing these proposals with film librarians and audio-visual experts, the author has found in general very enthusiastic approval and support. The few who are opposed to the use of any comprehensive system of numbers such as the Dewey or the UDC, have been convinced of its necessity due to the international nature and the growing complexity of educational films. Our efforts should be to encourage important film catalogues, such as *Educational Film Guide* to adopt the Universal Decimal Classification. Any attempt to overthrow the decimal classification and use instead a list of subject headings is a serious backward step and will make more difficult film exchange and co-operation within a nation as well as among nations.

CHAPTER X

RADIO AND TELEVISION IN THE ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMMES OF THE LOUISVILLE FREE PUBLIC LIBRARY

Working Paper prepared by

C. R. GRAHAM [1] AND WILLIAM HODAPP [2]

A UNIVERSITY OF THE PEOPLE

It has always seemed to us that the community library should have a significant place, not only in the intellectual life of the community, but, what is even more important, in the life of the so-called average man. We feel that knowledge, like education, in order to be effective, should be enjoyable. Three years ago we shifted the primary emphasis of our Louisville Free Public Library activities toward the problem of bringing higher learning to the people of the city. We undertook to create a free university of and for the people.

As our first step in this direction, the Louisville Free Public Library sponsored the "Great Books Discussion Groups" in our main library and branches. Louisville thus became the first city in the South to co-operate with this project. The Great Books Discussion Groups were begun under the sponsorship of the University of Chicago and are exactly what is indicated in the name, discussions of books which have influenced world thinking in any country, in any age. The popularity of this activity in Louisville indicated that we had a community willing to develop their thought.

NEIGHBOURHOOD COLLEGES

The next step toward our University of the People was the establishment of what we termed Neighbourhood Colleges. In six branch libraries, college courses are offered free of charge to the residents of Louisville, regardless of race. The only qualifications are a high-school diploma and the attainment of one's 21st birthday. The importance of this activity is the fact that any citizen of Louisville can

1. Librarian, Louisville Free Public Library, President of the American Library Association.
2. Script-writer, Radio Station WAVE.

exercise his democratic right to a college education with his neighbours as classmates. If a degree is desired, credit is given by the University of Louisville and a modest fee is charged. Courses in music, art, literature, architecture, sociology, psychology, and other allied subjects are offered.

Any library in any country in the world can have its great books discussions. Any library in the world which is near a university can begin a Neighbourhood College.

EDUCATION BY RADIO

In the spring of 1948, representatives of the University of Louisville, Radio Station WAVE, and the Louisville Free Public Library held a meeting with a representative of the National Broadcasting Company to formulate plans for a radio-assisted correspondence course to carry college credit or for self-advancement. A course in Anglo-American literature, with a distinguished author and lecturer as professor, was conducted over WAVE, and the result was the current NBC University Theatre network programme now co-operating with several large colleges and universities throughout the nation. The project originating in this conference is known as Education by Radio.

WIRE NETWORK

Some months before this development, the Louisville Free Public Library had installed a library wire network whereby the main library could send out simultaneously to the Louisville community through its 10 branches live radio programmes and public service programmes on transcription or record. The Education by Radio plan was ideally suited for exploitation by the library's wire network. Students without radio facilities could, at no inconvenience to themselves, visit their nearest library agency and benefit by this exciting innovation. These radio-classrooms in the libraries formed a nucleus of a new kind of town-hall meeting of discussions, simulating college conditions to a remarkable degree.

The Louisville Free Public Library's wire network now has 23 city-wide outlets. Using leased telephone wires as radio circuits at the rate of $1.25 per quarter of an air mile per month, this service brings educational programmes and worthwhile music to the following

agencies: The Children's Centre, a detention home for delinquent and dependent children; the children's ward of General Hospital; the psychopathic ward of the General Hospital; Kentucky School for the Blind; YWCA; two recreation centres; two parochial senior high schools; three public schools (one senior high, one junior high, and one elementary); the University of Louisville; and 10 branch libraries. The Reference, Children's and Circulation Departments at the main library have direct wire connexions for earphone listening. During the month of April, 1950, 712 transcribed programmes were "piped" to these agencies.

The leased wire type of radio usage has three distinct advantages well worth mentioning:

1. Class schedules often demand that secondary school programmes have to be repeated as often as seven times a day. This can be done over the wire network without boring the casual community listener who might be tuned in on the regular radio channel.

2. The wire network has the advantage that a programme can be started at the exact time desired by a teacher rather than at quarter-hour breaks as usually done in radio.

3. The wire network affords a means of distributing programmes recorded from commercial radio which at the present time cannot be cleared for rebroadcast.

The entire school system in Louisville which numbers 76 school plants can be hooked up to use the wire network service for approximately $500 monthly telephone charges. Steps are being taken now to connect two separate networks, one for junior and one for senior high school levels.

FM STATION WFPL

At an Education by Radio Conference at the University of Indiana in the summer of 1948, the Chairman of the Federal Communications Commission, remarked in a public address that licences for 10-watt FM Radio Stations were available for educational organizations and encouraged their use. He quoted a figure of $2,500 as basic cost for setting up such an operation, a price which seemed modest and possibly obtainable. Those of us at the Conference, representing the Louisville Free Public Library, were fired by this idea for another realistic expansion of Library facilities for the public. Louisville's Mayor, an ardent supporter of our University for the People plans, was enthusiastic and offered his whole-hearted help. And so, on

18 February 1950, FM Station WFPL, the first library-owned and operated radio station came into being. Our thought in taking this step was that "free people have to have most prompt access to broad areas of knowledge. Some of the old ways of imparting knowledge are too slow".

The inaugural of our radio station was publicized nationally in press, magazines, and radio. The coverage given us on the National Broadcasting Company's "Roundup of World News" ended with the line *They also lend books*. The lending of books is, of course, our major concern. But our University of the People through our Audio-Visual Department has increased book circulation amazingly. More and more people use our facilities. Knowledge is being disseminated to our community in all possible ways: books, supplemented by records, films, radio programmes, art and so on.

The radio station in the six months of its operation is proving its influence and worth. The conception of its programming was both appropriate and unique. Now on the air 11 hours daily from 11 a.m. to 10 p.m., the same programme in identical sequence is repeated seven days a week. The programme changes each Sunday and the complete listing of subjects to be discussed and serious music to be played, is published in the Sunday newspaper.

This innovation in programming is called "horizontal duplication" and is of course unheard of in regular commercial broadcasting. WFPL is not competing in any way with commercial broadcasting and can play directly to its public, whether that public is one person, a class, a civic group or all the listeners in the area. These radical changes from long accepted types of programmes available to the radio audience, constitute a challenge to the casual listener, but the library believed when it took to the air that such a challenge would be justified and that an alert public would respond. Cards received from WFPL listeners have indicated an audience of more than 12,000 out of a possible 45,000 FM audience. The Mayor is of the opinion that a comparison of a commercial radio station with WFPL is somewhat like a comparison of a daily newspaper with the *Saturday Review of Literature*. One is for hurried daily consumption; the other for leisurely perusal at any time during the week.

The physical construction of FM station WFPL began in May 1949 with the conversion of an antiquated museum in the east wing of the main library building into headquarters for the audio-visual department of which the proposed radio station would be a unit. The studios, preview rooms, film and transcription libraries, and the control room were completed and all necessary

equipment installed by January 1950. The studios and audio-visual department are modern and attractive in design, utilizing many new materials.

The equipment of the new department comprises two acoustically treated studios, a control room capable of playing simultaneously five programmes from tape recordings and four programmes from disc recordings, and a transcription library housing the best in educational and documentary material, as well as serious music of all types.

WFPL depends almost entirely on volunteers to run it. One of the most gratifying aspects of the operation has been the response from various civic groups. The Junior League and a local high school are providing workers who time the broadcast as the programmes are assembled. Louisville amateur radio operators donate hours of service at the controls. Professional radio personnel assist as announcers and artists, donating their services. The station hires no professional staff. The other departments of the library system are encouraged to promote their special services by way of sketches, interviews and spot announcements.

All of the audio facilities of the Library have been made available to the Louisville Board of Education. The radio station as a part of these facilities is aimed primarily at meeting the requirements of the school from 11 a.m. to 3 p.m. The potential worth of these facilities is such that the Board has plans for releasing some teachers from their regular duties to work on the correlation of radio programmes into the school's regular curriculum and to organize a school system technically to enable all agencies to hear programmes as they are made accessible to the schools.

Programmes of general interest to all groups concentrate on special subjects. For instance, during National Mental Health Week, WFPL featured a panel discussion on "Community Attitudes Toward Mental Illness". Participants were two mental patients, a recreational director from a mental institution, and a psychiatric nurse. The panel discussion was moderated by a psychiatrist. Another illustration of community service by WFPL was in the co-operative sponsorship of a city-wide school contest originated by the Business and Professional Women's Club. This contest was to reward the best radio scripts written by students in the city-wide school system at the high school level on the subject of "Civic Improvement". Produced in the studies of WFPL under the direction of two professional radio directors, the scripts were tape recorded for permanence and future presentation.

A 10-watt FM station is expected to cover only a 3-mile area but tests here have shown that WFPL is being received as far as 10 miles from its point of origin on sensitive sets with outdoor antennae. The department is also testing various standard type receiving sets to determine the makes and models most satisfactory for low power reception.

The term "radio" has still another meaning as the "Audio" half of the Audio-Visual Department. It combines various means of recording and transmitting material, both disc and tape recordings being used. Programmes include everything of educational value recorded from other radio sources, as well as "live" programmes transcribed by equipment placed anywhere in the city where events worthy of preservation and repetition are taking ,place. The collection of recorded material now includes 2,332 transcriptions on both tape and discs, besides 737 microgroove long-playing records and 523 albums of regular 78 RPM records.

Some special radio programmes developed for use on WFPL of special interest to libraries are, (1) "Voice of the Books", which like the Blind School "Talking Book" records classical and important modern books. The Blind School talking book is only available to the blind, whereas WFPL in its "Voice of the Books" has extended that service to the physically handicapped, the shut-ins and the stay-at-homes, as well as any other interested listeners. (2) Through the co-operation of the Children's Theatre in the community, the library also offers dramatizations of children's books to stimulate interest in folk tales. (3) At a later date dramatizations for radio of the world's great plays are contemplated. We are constantly seeking new and specialized programme ideas which will supplement the formal educational programme and extend it to all tastes and interests.

EDUCATION BY TELEVISION

When WAVE, Inc., inaugurated television on 24 November 1948, the Library added as another type of equipment to its Audio-Visual Department a television receiver in the main Library and each branch. TV in the libraries was an instantaneous success and the crowds overflowed library facilities. Average attendance nightly was 100 at each library, and the total audience over the city was between 1,000 and 1,200.

But some unexpected and interesting problems arose. For one thing the regular library schedule of hours had to be adjusted. Some

of the television programmes ran past 9 o'clock! TV guards had to be posted to keep the sets adjusted and protected, and to supervise the crowd. This was solved by engaging University of Louisville students as "television sitters" and a new phrase was added to the "slanguage".

In spite of the increased facilities needed for the convenience of the libraries' televiewers, the added attendance has greatly stimulated interest in and use of regular library services.

Book circulation has increased markedly; the Audio-Visual Department has far more films out on loan; there has been a run on classical records and TV aids. As a community service, then, thanks to this impetus of television, the library has expanded its value to the public it serves.

This growing library audience is also becoming significant as a force in affecting future programming in TV. These television town halls of discussion are answering such questions as "What does the public really like? What does it not like? Who listens—that is, what type of audience?"

TELEVISION TOWN HALL

Television's town halls in Louisville libraries are proving an excellent cross-section to study when analysing TV audience problems. Then too, Louisville, being a border phenomenon in states neither north, east, south, or west, but rather a synthesis of all American qualities, provides through this specialized group a kind of television barometer and constitutes a new kind of ready-made poll survey. Station WAVE-TV has eagerly solicited the help and co-operation of these viewers in the library and is benefiting from the natural liaison.

Some of the present and projected programmes growing out of this mating of public services include (a) television lectures, utilizing visual materials, in co-operation with the University of Louisville; (b) Great Book forums; and (c) co-ordination of educational films shown on TV in the community's adult and children's extracurricular courses which may be conducted through or in co-operation with the library.

If the family is the core of civilization, then perhaps small groups in the community gathered together in these TV Town Halls may constitute the most flexible and influential segments of the nation. Television in the library undoubtedly will prove itself to be a useful new sort of university and laboratory.

CHAPTER XI

LIBRARY DISCUSSION GROUPS

Working Paper prepared by

S. MÖHLENBROCK [1]

WHAT IS A discussion group or study circle? How is it formed and why? A prominent Swedish adult educator once put it this way: "The discussion group is the principle of mutual help and co-operation applied to the striving for education and knowledge. It demands of everyone according to his ability and gives to everyone according to his need. Every member of the discussion group should know that learning requires effort but also that co-operation diminishes the effort, makes the reward greater and gives in the bargain happiness, pleasure and a sense of good fellowship". Nowadays the discussion group is an effective way of giving to an ever-increasing number of people the education and knowledge they need in order to take an active part in modern democratic life.

And what about the librarian as an active adult educator, e.g., as a group leader? This is a question that has caused much discussion among librarians the world over. To me, library work is primarily adult education work which should be carried out in close contact with other adult education organizations. If the librarian has a talent for giving lectures, leading discussion groups, etc., and can spare the time, he should take an active part in these activities. In doing so he can bring the discussion groups to the library and make them feel that the library is the right place for adult education work. This will bring goodwill to the library and will make its services widely known.

There are various kinds of discussion groups. First is the discussion group in the limited sense of the word; it may be characterized as a form of organized conversation. The members are the main actors. Contributions from their knowledge and experience make the discussion. The task of the group leader is to keep the discussion going and to supply the group with information wanted. He should also see to it that the discussion really deals with the chosen subject

1. Librarian, Public Library, Norrköping, Sweden.

and does not drift into irrelevant details. This type of discussion group is perhaps the simplest: people with a common interest talking things over in an informal way, giving and taking information and knowledge. Then we have the reading-circle in which members read aloud from books on a given subject. Members should of course be encouraged to give their own points of view after the reading. Another plan is to have the members give reports on books they have read. There is also the lecture-circle, in which the subject is dealt with in a series of lectures given by members of the group or by others. In all these types of discussion groups, the activity of members is encouraged in every way so that each will feel that his own efforts are important to the common work of the group.

Some groups are formed in connexion with certain radio programmes. Others study films from a linguistic, moral, social, or political point of view. In Scandinavian countries, correspondence schools prepare materials and distribute them to discussion groups for use in their work. When the groups have difficulty in finding qualified leaders, the correspondence schools act in a way as group leaders, correcting the answers to questions, explaining difficulties and so on. In many cases various methods are combined.

A discussion group cannot work smoothly by itself; it needs a leader, and the leader is a very important person. On him chiefly depends the success of the activity. He must organize the group, acquaint the members with the purpose of their work, make them feel welcome, and prepare books and other study material.

He must have a fairly good general knowledge of the subject to be discussed, but he need not be an expert. The main requirements are that he be inspired by a real interest in his work, know how to make the members as interested as he is himself and have organizing ability. In addition, he should be thoroughly acquainted with the many methods used to stimulate discussion.

The leader should let the members express their different points of view; he must never try to decide what the others should think and say. The less he can make himself heard and yet lead the discussion in the right direction, the better a leader he will be. Although he is the natural chairman of the meetings of the group he must not let the formal procedure become too rigid. A discussion is an organized conversation.

A discussion should be opened by a short introduction giving the broad outlines of the subject, but it is not necessary for the group leader to do this. On the contrary, it is advisable to have it done by a member of the group. Otherwise the leader may have to answer too many questions arising from the introduction and thereby

dominate the proceedings against his will. The introduction should be short with the chief aim of stimulating discussion.

The contributions to the discussion should always be relevant to the subject and clear. When irrelevant, the group leader must bring the discussion back in the right direction by stressing the principal points being considered. He may even have to demonstrate the points so that each member clearly understands their meaning. This is one of the more important details of leading a discussion. People not only do not mean the same thing by the same word, but sometimes they do not really understand some of the words they use offhand. It is the duty of the group leader to get those members away from the big words and to encourage them to speak clearly and simply. But he is not the teacher giving rebukes to pupils: he is the leader who discreetly and inoffensively points out mistakes to the member in question.

If the members seem to forget important points, the leader may give a short summary of the discussion, calling attention to matters which should be considered—but not in such a way that the members feel ashamed.

Any discussion may come to a dead end, when no one seems to have anything to add and a general feeling of depression is hovering in the air. A standstill in a discussion might even spoil the good effect of the previous discussion. If the group leader has a sense of humour he may throw in the right word to ease the situation. Or, if he has a fairly good knowledge of each member of the group he may know exactly when to put a decisive question to the right person, thus keeping the discussion going.

On the other hand, he may be called upon to stop the flow of words from a too garrulous member. There always are people who love to hear their own voices, and the group leader must see to it that the words do not become the masters of thought.

Members of a group may come from various classes of society and have very different educational backgrounds. But within the group all are equals, and the leader must always remember to treat them as equals. Behind a somewhat awkward speech may lie thoughts worthy of respect. No member of the discussion group must ever get a feeling of being looked down upon on account of lack of knowledge.

There is no limit to the subjects that can be studied in a discussion group. For example, international co-operation in political, economic, social and cultural fields as demonstrated by the work of the United Nations is of vital importance to adult education all over the world. Many a discussion group considers important local problems and thereby adds to the possibilities of good solutions.

CHAPTER XII

LIBRARY EXHIBITIONS

Working Paper prepared by
KATE COPLAN [1]

TODAY the most successful organizations everywhere are those which tell the world by every feasible means, especially pictorial presentation, who they are, where they are, what they are doing, why they are doing it and how they are doing it. Librarians must learn to borrow a leaf from the notebook of business. It pays to advertise! If libraries are to serve as a truly constructive force in the community, then they must make more and more people aware of how the printed word can help them in their homes, in their jobs, with their educational and recreational problems—in short, with the daily business of living.

Exhibits offer one of the best ways of promoting the library's books and services. Within the building exhibition cases, bulletin boards, shelves and tables may become excellent channels of "propaganda". But exterior show windows are far more important, because the chief aim is to carry the reading message to persons not already familiar with the library's resources and potential usefulness.

The purpose of library exhibits, of course, is to stimulate interest in books and reading, for reference and borrowing, and to show continually that books are related to every subject of public interest. Any such exhibit must show the definite relationship between books and the subject in question.

Librarians who have no windows of their own are urged to go to the town's busiest district, and ask for the loan of good window space. Perhaps the leading grocer on the main street will lend his window for a week or two. As this will represent some sacrifice on his part, the librarian might show her appreciation by displaying some of her most tempting cook books, thus promoting not only her own books, but the grocer's wares.

In the spring, a hardware proprietor might be induced to give up a show window temporarily to an exhibition of gardening literature.

1. Chief, Exhibits and Publicity, Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, Maryland.

He will consent with alacrity if a collection of his garden implements can be included in the design, to add "atmosphere". When properly approached almost any shop owner, as a matter of self-interest, will be happy to fall in line with the library's plan. It is also well to remember vacant stores on busy streets. The owners or agents of these properties are likely to permit the use of these windows gladly, for attractive displays increase the chances of rental.

Once the window space is definitely promised, there comes the question of what to put into it, and how to arrange the material to the best advantage. Co-operation is the key word of successful exhibits. The more people that can be interested in the project, the greater will be the degree of success attained.

Some years ago *Fortune* Magazine [1] wrote : "The average person passes the average window in about eleven seconds. Most display, then, has no choice but to leap out at you, but in the very act of teaping it must create the impression that it is drawing you to it."

The problem, then, is to make each library window so irresistible lhat passers-by, who read as they run, will come back for a second and a longer look.

Ideas for exhibitions need not necessarily be original. Anyone on the alert can discover a wealth of suggestions in books, newspapers and magazines, on book jackets, in advertising and publicity journals. A casual walk down the street is apt to yield a number of effective ideas to workers with a seeing eye and a bit o imagination.

First of all one must decide on the main theme of the displayf then build around it. No matter what the subject emphasized, in the, selection of books it is usually wise to include a varied collection of literature, so as to interest people of as many types and ages as possible. Colour is a valuable element in any exhibit. When several tones are to be employed in the design, they must harmonize or contrast, but never clash. Artists and art students, teachers in the community, hobbyists and collectors, may be persuaded to contribute ideas, time and material. The more she can get others to do, the ess the *librarian* will need to do herself. Usually ready and willing allies in exhibits undertakings are the schools of a town. They will gladly agree to do, as class projects, book posters, show cards, perhaps cut-out letters for captions, and even simple wood fixtures.

When choosing literature for a display care must be taken to select books that can be shown to advantage. Good, legible spines,

1. "Window Display", p. 91, *Fortune* Magazine, January, 1937, Vol. 15.

attractive covers and illustrations, and clear print for easy reading, are all factors to be considered.

Frequently the outer binding of a book may be shabby and dull, but the frontispiece or an inside illustration may be gay and inviting. It is up to the librarian to emphasize the best points of a book when using it in an exhibit.

Whenever practicable, related objects of interest may be borrowed for an exhibit, no matter what the subject featured. The articles will serve as attention-getters. If, for example, there is a woman in the neighbourhood who has gone abroad and brought home distinctive ceramics of the country visited, she might lend them for a window on pottery. Or, if she has an assortment of picture postcards of scenic views and historic shrines, these might be borrowed for an exhibit featuring foreign travel. Such exhibits build goodwill. Not only will the lender be a library enthusiast for life, but so will her friends and all the members of her family, down to the last cousin.

All borrowed items are a great responsibility. They must be handled with extreme care, protected from dust and fading, insured against fire and theft. Once the library has earned a reputation for handling articles without incident, even the most cautious individuals and groups will be ready to lend their possessions.

In arranging material for a display, each item should be placed so that it may be plainly seen. No one piece should be permitted to obscure another. The more significant books should be displayed most strategically but the entire exhibit must present a certain symmetry and balance. Simple designs are preferable, particularly for beginners.

Every exhibit should have a backdrop that catches the eye. At the Enoch Pratt Free Library in Baltimore portable insulite [1] panels, reinforced with narrow wooden strips to keep them from warping, are employed as bait. Self-supporting on small wooden feet, they are covered with quick-drying water paint, and fitted with attractive books and related cardboard decorations. Three-dimensional cut-out letters, painted to harmonize with the rest of the design, are carefully spaced out and measured for the caption, or message. An attempt is made to use psychology in determining colour combinations. During the warm weather months the cool greens, blues, violets, grays and white predominate. In the winter preference is given to the reds, yellows, oranges, etc. In so far as books are concerned, there is no colour problem. Books, like flowers, go well together, no matter what the diversity.

1. A wood pulp substance sold by American lumber companies, similar to Celotex, but smoother and less absorbent: it takes paint and pins more readily.



Audio-visual library book van.

Many public libraries lend recordings and films, as well as books.
Public library exhibition for international understanding.



In Baltimore, as elsewhere in the United States, librarians sometimes get discarded commercial cut-outs, cigarette ads, refrigerator ads and similar cardboard display pieces from neighbourhood stores. Some of these, with a little judicious doctoring, can be adapted admirably to library displays. On one occasion the Enoch Pratt Library turned an attractive whisky cut-out, featuring a major-domo in colourful colonial costume, into a decoration for a musical exhibit. Another time the cardboard figure of a young girl, designed to advertise a particular brand of salt, and with a box of salt under the right arm, was transformed into a library "reader" merely by substituting a book for the box of salt.

Flimsy pamphlets, pictures and newspaper clippings should be reinforced with cardboard before being placed in an exhibit, to prevent curling. Narrow white cotton tape may be used to tie books open. Rubber bands are bad for this purpose, because they are too conspicuous, and, also, because they have a tendency to break when hit by the sun.

To add interest to the whole the display should be arranged at varying levels. Posters, picture maps, gloves, folders of illustrated data relating to the featured subject, bright paper jackets on "dummy" books—that is, books worn out in service and discarded from the active collection—are welcome additions to any exhibit, not only for their utilitarian value, but also for their touch of colour.

When plans for a display are well under way, the necessary show cards should be made. A brief but interesting descriptive note should accompany each item requiring explanation. Visitors linger longer when there are notes to be read. Hand-lettered, professional-looking labels are better than typewritten ones, and the style should be neither "high-brow" nor "low-brow", but a happy medium. It is to the average passer-by that the appeal is addressed, and the information should be presented in simple form.

When the job of arranging the exhibition material is actually begun, sufficient "white space", to use the printer's term, should be allowed, and the individual pieces should be placed with that careful carelessness so productive of effect. For, if an exhibit looks crowded or disjointed, it will hardly attract attention, much less create interest, or stimulate the desire to read, which, after all, is the principal purpose of the exhibit.

After a window display has been completed, it should be examined in detail from the outside, for flaws. Perhaps a book is upside down, a label out of line, or an object off balance. Minor adjustments are almost always necessary.

To the general passer-by, a window display represents a sampling of what the library has to offer him. Not infrequently one observes window exhibits that are distinguished only for lack of novelty, poor art and lettering, and uninteresting design. A window is like an individual. To be a success in life it must be friendly and appealing. It must have colour, balance, personality—even a sense of humour, on occasion. It must please before it can inform. Any window exhibit lacking in the qualities mentioned is doomed to failure.

Seventeen years ago Baltimore's new central library opened its doors to the public, its façade decorated with a dozen big show windows, in the manner of a department store. These windows were a revolutionary experiment on a grand scale, envisaged, when the structure was planned, by a librarian awake to the possibilities of visual education and the challenge of dramatizing literature to demonstrate how books tie up with practically every community interest and activity.

Many sceptical persons throughout the library world questioned the wisdom of the plan. Was it feasible, was it sensible, they wondered, for a public library to undertake such an ambitious exhibits programme. Since then all doubts have been laid to rest. "The show windows of Baltimore", as one writer has called them, are favourite disseminators of information, a living testimonial to a pioneer's prophetic judgment The displays are changed every three weeks, and almost invariably they create a demand for the books exhibited. Frequently they bring into the building book borrowers who never before had set foot in it. Sometimes months after a display has been dismantled—indeed, one might say years, for only last month there was an inquiry concerning a display held 14 years ago—requests are received for the printed matter shown.

What goes into the Pratt windows? Practically everything under the sun, at one time or another. The library's exhibits have ranged in theme from live bees to international friendship, from stories-in-stone to modern art, from the abacus to zoology.

Nearly every phase of art, science, industry, business, social and civic problems and education, with emphasis on Baltimore's accomplishments in these fields, has been touched upon. But emphasis is given, also, to world affairs, the United Nations, local and national events of importance, birthdays of notables living or dead, worthwhile books by local writers. In addition, private collections and travelling exhibitions are constantly drawn upon to promote reading and to demonstrate in how many diversified fields books can play a part.

Baltimoreans of all ages and walks of life contribute to the Pratt's display programme. The list of lenders co-operating numbers in the thousands, and includes children in the kindergarten, as well as such international celebrities as H. L. Mencken and the late Dr. Howard A. Kelly, pioneer of the Johns Hopkins Medical School.

The same broad display principles which apply to windows also apply to cases, bulletin boards, and other exhibits. Questions of taste and balance, of intelligent organization and interesting arrangement, of catchy captions and readable descriptive notes for items requiring explanation, enter into all types of exhibits. The display worker must be meticulous about details. Neatness is of paramount importance, and the "props", fixtures or devices by which the material is shown, must always be as inconspicuous as possible.

To cite one example of the lengths to which some workers go: In Baltimore, Pratt librarians attach cut-out letters to the backdrops by means of small or regular-size pins, depending on the letter thicknesses. And, so that the shiny pinheads will not be a distracting influence, stealing attention from the exhibit proper, they touch them up with matching paints. At times hundreds of pins are so treated, in a single display.

A strip of tape placed on a book to hold it open at a given page must never be an inch and a half from the outer edge at the top, and one inch from the edge at the bottom. This makes for an appearance of sloppiness, which cannot be tolerated. If two adjoining books are placed at an angle, on metal book supports bent to a given level, one should never be half an inch higher than the other. It is well to aim for perfection, even though there is little prospect of achieving it. The librarian responsible for a display is usually his or her own severest critic.

Frequently ready-made exhibits are available for borrowing, with a minimum of effort and labour on the part of the library. Among sources for these in the United States are schools and colleges; art and science museums; government bureaux; industries; labour unions; travel agencies and collectors.

In Baltimore it is the practice to have book exhibits connect with various adult education programmes. To name but a few to which the Pratt in recent months has sent book displays: child care and training centres; church conferences; a United Nations Symposium; a leadership forum, conducted by the Junior Association of Commerce; family affairs institutes; film forums; an inter-racial fellowship programme.

Granted that effective exhibits require considerable time, effort,

and in some cases, money, they are well worth it. Every moment and penny spent on their planning and preparation may be regarded as a sound investment likely to pay rich dividends in added public interest and expanded usefulness of the library's collection. It is the firm belief of this prejudiced writer that visual education, as a device for fostering adult education, has no superiors and few equals.

CHAPTER XIII

RECORDINGS IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Working Paper prepared by

ELIZABETH ANDERSEN [1]

THE BASIS for this paper is: (1) a 1948 survey of recordings in municipal public libraries serving populations of 75,000 and over, in the United States; and (2) information received by May 1950, from most of these libraries about the use of recordings in adult education. In 1948, there were 141 cities having such libraries, but only 74 had recordings. (Four libraries were not heard from.) Nine libraries were unable to co-operate in the study. Three expected questionnaire returns were not received. Two returns came too late to be included in the study, so that 60 libraries were used, 81 per cent of the 74 libraries which had recordings.

The term "recording" rather than "record" is used because it covers all types of recorded material whether transmitted to disc, wire or tape and because it eliminates confusion in regard to many other kinds of records a library keeps.

TYPES OF RECORDINGS

Recordings today are of two main kinds: disc (shellac or plastic) and roll (magnetic wire or tape). The disc may be of many sizes, requiring one of numerous turntable speeds and ranging in playing time for one full side from four to 30 minutes. Magnetic recordings, likewise, are of various speeds and lengths of playing time, up to two hours. In 1948 Columbia's LP (long-playing) recordings were the latest innovation. Only four libraries had them and 12 libraries expressed a cautious interest in them. Now that people are more accustomed to the idea of speed variations and have acquired the necessary equipment for playing these recordings, many more libraries have purchased the LP recordings. RCA Victor's recent entry into the long-playing field strengthens the case for these recordings in

1. Milwaukee Public Library, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

public libraries. Magnetic recordings are used for the recording and preservation of radio broadcasts, of "live" programmes of interest to the library and the community and for duplication of recordings too rare or expensive to be used freely. The new plastic tape is more practical than the paper tape, but either may be "erased" and used again and again. In the next few years there will doubtless be more developments in both disc and magnetic recording techniques. Libraries may be expected to follow these developments with interest and to use new techniques to make their libraries centres of live community information.

Music recordings make up the bulk of most library collections — concertos, symphonies, operatic arias, chamber music, folk music and light incidental music being held most often, although 25 libraries had recordings of jazz and swing. Of non-music recordings (commonly mis-named "educational"), children's stories, recordings for foreign language study and for the study and enjoyment of literature predominate in public libraries.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF A RECORDING COLLECTION

Relationship to other departments. A recording centre may be located almost anywhere; ideally, in an audio or audio-visual department or fine arts department. In the latter case it should be separated from the other activities of the department, yet near scores and music information. Forty-three libraries used one department for their recording collection (22 were in the Fine Arts Department, two in a Record Room and five in an Audio-visual Department). Seventeen libraries used two or more departments for their recording collections.

Recording centres are also found in branch libraries. Of 56 libraries reporting, in only one system did all the branches have their own collections; in 10 systems, some branch libraries had their own recordings, and in three systems some branch libraries had deposit collections.

Staff. Only one library (of 59 reporting) had a staff concerned only with recordings. The delegation of duties to professional, sub-professional, clerical and technician ranks followed the usual library distinctions among the various grades or very little or no distinction was made.

Cataloguing and arrangement on the shelves. Most libraries have a separate card catalogue of recordings with the main entries usually made by composer or author, or by title. Recordings may be arranged

on the shelf alphabetically by author or title, by a given accession number or by a classification symbol.

Regulations regarding loan. Rules regarding the lending of recordings are fairly uniform. Most libraries require only a regular library card, others an additional card, for which a deposit of from one to five dollars may be charged. Most libraries make no restriction on group use: the borrower alone is held responsible for the recordings.

Fifty-two of the 60 libraries loaned recordings. Of 48 libraries, only 10 restricted the residence of borrowers to the city in which the library is located.

Recordings were loaned free for a limited time (usually seven or 14 days) by 41 libraries. Eleven other libraries charged a fee from the date drawn. (Three of these 11 libraries had both free and rental collections.) The fees ranged from three cents an album per day to 10 cents a disc for three days, and from five cents a disc per week to 25 cents an album per week. Overdue charges varied according to the unit of charge (whether disc, album, title, or all the recordings taken at one time) from one cent to 10 cents per day, the most usual being two cents per day per disc and per album.

SELECTION AND PURCHASE OF RECORDINGS

In the selection of recordings, the advice of interested persons is frequently sought (staff and or non-staff) in addition to the printed evaluations found in the standard guides.

The selection policies most often advocated were:

Select and purchase standard works, old and contemporary, with the aim of a well-balanced collection (usually limited to "classical" and near-classical music).
Try to meet community needs, whatever they are.
Do not buy popular music, jazz or current "hits".
Expand into fields other than music.

Less frequently suggested selection policies were:

Buy the best jazz and good popular music.
Try to satisfy special requests.
Supplement private collections with expensive and rare items.
Buy plastic recordings when possible.

In buying recordings, 26 of the 60 libraries depended only upon a designated portion of the general library fund, six libraries only upon rental and service charges on recordings, five libraries upon

endowments only and five upon gifts of recordings and money only.

Libraries obtained discounts from local dealers of from 10 per cent to 40 per cent. On recordings not in stock and especially ordered, the local dealer gave discounts of from 10 per cent to 20 per cent. The local dealer was usually the best source for replacements of single discs in albums.

In 51 communities (55 libraries reporting) the public library was the only "free" or low-cost source of recordings. In four communities, the presence of a commercial library which rented recordings was judged not to affect selection, purchase or use of the public library's collection of recordings.

TYPES OF RECORDING EQUIPMENT AND PLAYBACKS

Seven libraries reported owning equipment for the making of recordings: two had wire recorders; one, a tape recorder; one, a two-speed disc recorder and a tape recorder; one, a wire and a tape recorder; and two, a two-speed disc recorder. In 1948, the making of recordings was a new venture for public libraries.

Four libraries had no audio equipment in 1948. Forty-five others stated the amount, types and trade names of their audio equipment. These libraries listed 84 78 r.p.m. playbacks (either phonographs or radio-phonographs) and 15 two-speed playbacks. Twenty-five libraries used turntable and earphone equipment (at listening tables) amounting to 56 turntables and 163 sets of earphones. The number of sets of earphones per turntable ranged from one to six. Individual libraries had from one turntable and one set of earphones. The number of sets of earphones per turntable ranged from one turntable and one set of earphones to seven turntables and 22 sets of earphones. Ten libraries had listening booths (accommodating from one to six persons). Fourteen libraries had rooms (accommodating from nine to 200 persons) used for listening to recordings.

USE IN LIBRARY ADULT EDUCATION

Information was requested of 62 libraries regarding the use of recordings in their adult education programmes as of May 1950. Replies were received from 57 libraries. Many librarians expressed regret that they had been unable to use recordings in their adult education teaching. A few stated that they had hopes of doing so.

Nine libraries reported that they gave recorded concerts for adults, sometimes accompanied by "music appreciation" talks and discussion.

The remainder of this paper will be concerned with the use of recordings in adult education by individual libraries.

The Akron Public Library, Akron, Ohio

"Opera Programmes. The Metropolitan Opera Company of New York visits Cleveland each year. Several years ago, we sponsored three programmes prior to opera week—synopses of plots, outstanding arias and so on. Whenever possible, library records were used.

"Christmas Programmes. At noon for a week before Christmas programmes planned by volunteers were played. The Group Service Department issued a list of films and recordings, both juvenile and adult, suitable for Christmas planning.

"Film Council—Parent Groups. The Group Service Department conducts workshops in the use of audio-visual materials which includes, of course, recordings. . . ."

Cleveland Public Library, Cleveland, Ohio

"We have attempted a few experiments in the use of recordings in our adult education programmes:

"Recordings have been used on two different occasions for *Invitation to Ideas* programmes. At one time a 15-minute recording of a Library broadcast on Toynbee was played at the conclusion of an *Invitation to Ideas* discussion of Toynbee, and at another time a recording of the Toynbee broadcast was also used for programmes outside the Library. We have used tape recordings of *Report from the World* speeches, as the basis for discussion. . . .

"We have also used recordings of speeches made at conferences, which we have played for one or more groups unable to attend the conference."

Denver Public Library, Denver, Colorado

". . . We are collecting recordings of poets reading their own poems which we expect to use regularly. We are having some programmes this spring at which the address on Goethe given last summer at Aspen by Albert Schweitzer will be presented to groups. . . ."

Fort Worth Public Library, Fort Worth, Texas

"The . . . Library has sponsored language classes for adults for several years, and these use records for instruction in foreign languages as well as in English. Spanish, French, German, Italian, Portuguese, Russian and English have been taught with the use of . . . language instruction records. Several hundred adults have benefited from these classes, and from individual use of language records. Language instruction recordings are also available in Chinese, Japanese, Arabic, Yiddish and Hindustani.

"In co-operation with the Fort Worth Art Association the Library sponsored a lecture series on the history of music. . . . The fee for the series was $7.50 per person."

Lawson McGhee Library, Knoxville, Tennessee

"The . . . Library . . . had one series on 'Music, Literature and Art as a Means to World Understanding'. . . . Italy, Greece, Scotland, France and one or two other countries were included. On each of the programmes, outstanding books of one country were discussed and displayed, and films were shown which gave an idea of the architecture and, in some cases, the art of the country; occasionally natives of the country spoke."

Long Beach Public Library, Long Beach, California

"Our only library adult education project with records last year was the purchase of a series of five transcribed broadcasts of discussions between Herbert Hoover and Lyman Bryson on the Hoover Committee's report regarding the re-organization of the Executive Branch of the Federal Government.

"In presenting this programme we arranged with two local radio stations to have the transcriptions broadcast, provided radios for listening in all library agencies, advertised the programme, then supplied copies of the report and a list of readings about it to all who wished to study further. . . . We plan to use the transcriptions again this year with study groups meeting in the library.

"There is an extensive adult education programme in Long Beach sponsored by the local public school system. Hence, instead of preparing programmes of our own, we usually co-operate by supplying the groups in the schools with recordings. These adult education classes range from 'History of Music' or conversational

French and Spanish to radio workshops seeking 'mood' music. In aiding these groups, we purchase many items they request, furnish duplicates for reference use in the library's listening room and often provide meeting places in branch libraries.

"In addition to the groups sponsored by our local schools, we have many study groups in town, for example, the music section of the Women's Club, with which we work in planning programmes and providing records. A recently organized Opera Workshop is constantly borrowing recordings for group study. We do not wait for such groups to contact us, but often write or telephone them."

Newark Public Library, Newark, New Jersey

"Our branches report that they use recordings for many adult entertainment programmes. The recordings are borrowed from the Main Library's collection, and from other sources. . . .

"The Art Department reports considerable use of their large collection of music records by music appreciation groups and the Newark School of Fine and Industrial Arts.

"Though the Lending and Reference Department has no formal programme for adult education, we do supply records to groups for adult study, for example, language instruction recordings to teachers of foreign languages and their students. We have sets in nine languages. . . . Some of the Newark schools and private organizations use our records for teaching English to the foreign-born. Another group studying Shakespeare uses our sets of his plays."

Rochester Public Library, Rochester, New York

". . . For some time we have been using our recordings with our film programmes and discussion groups. Special programmes for UN week, Jewish music week, etc., have been scheduled as part of the regular record programmes. Various adult groups have been on our mailing lists for concert programmes . . .

Rockford Public Library, Rockford, Illinois

"During the past winter, we have sponsored a course in music appreciation for adults. The purpose of this series was to provide instruction for those whose formal education has been completed but who wish to know more about the music they hear at concerts or on radio programmes.

"Lectures were given bi-weekly in the library by qualified local musicians on chamber music, symphonic form, jazz, folk music, opera in English, Chopin, and woodwind instruments. Each speaker illustrated his talk with records from the library collection. . . . Later . . . we may conduct a series in one particular field, such as symphony or folk music."

The Public Library of the District of Columbia

". . . The *Group Reading Programme* has made use of recordings as a basis for discussion of Great Books:

"1. Recordings have been made of Great Books discussions and then played back for evaluation.

"2. Transcriptions of the CBS (Columbia Broadcasting System) programme, 'You Were There' were borrowed from the local radio station and discussed.

"3. Commercial recordings of readings of poetry and drama have also been used as a basis for discussion. Musical recordings have been used with a programme based on Aristotle's 'Poetics'."

And from one library which did not give permission to use its name:

"During the past year the Library has offered a series of music appreciation lectures and another series on compositions to be played by the local symphony orchestra. Both series were illustrated with recordings.

"The library sends out a lecturer to any organization or group desiring a programme of music. About 25 such lectures were given last year.

"The library also circulates French and Spanish language recordings."

The use of recordings in adult education is in its infancy, but great developments in this field can be expected during the next five years.

PART FOUR

LIBRARY SERVICES IN UNDER-DEVELOPED REGIONS

(GROUP III)

The first duty of the public library is to serve the people of its community; the second duty has not yet been discovered.

—A participant.

CHAPTER XIV

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF LIBRARY SERVICE AS AN AID TO ADULT EDUCATION IN UNDER-DEVELOPED REGIONS

GROUP III of the Seminar was asked to consider an extremely complex problem: how to incorporate library services in a general scheme of mass education in the under-developed areas of the world. The peoples in such areas, because of their geographical position, their climate, the nature of their soil, and their history, or because they have failed to become adapted to an environment not their own, have been kept at a low level of life and severed, in a general way, from the progress of modern civilization. They have been held in conditions of poverty and ignorance.

There have been many efforts to raise such peoples' standards of life and, simultaneously, their cultural level. Much of the effort of Unesco is now directed toward this end. It would appear, however, that the role of the library in these various enterprises has never been clearly defined. Librarians have seldom taken this initial stage of their services into consideration when drawing up their general programmes of "books for the public". The success of a few isolated experiments has never been brought to the notice of the general public, or of the appropriate authorities in other countries.

If we examine these groups of people that are economically and culturally backward, we find conditions that differ to a very marked degree, and this fact renders any general study of the problem extremely difficult. Once and for all, it should be said that library services at the "fundamental education" level must be of an extremely flexible type; this indeed must be their main characteristic.

It is axiomatic that a library should be adapted to the environment it is designed to serve; that its contents should reflect the needs of a community; that its techniques should be suited to its users; and that its services should accord with a clear, pre-established programme. These are fundamental truths that every librarian must know and take into account. It is essential that he should, for example, know

1. The introductory material in this chapter is drawn largely from the digest of an address given by Miss Yvonne Oddon, leader of Group III, to the entire Seminar.

the social structure of the community with which he is concerned, and especially the problems involved in the transformation of its culture, since it is the task of the library to take a part in that process.

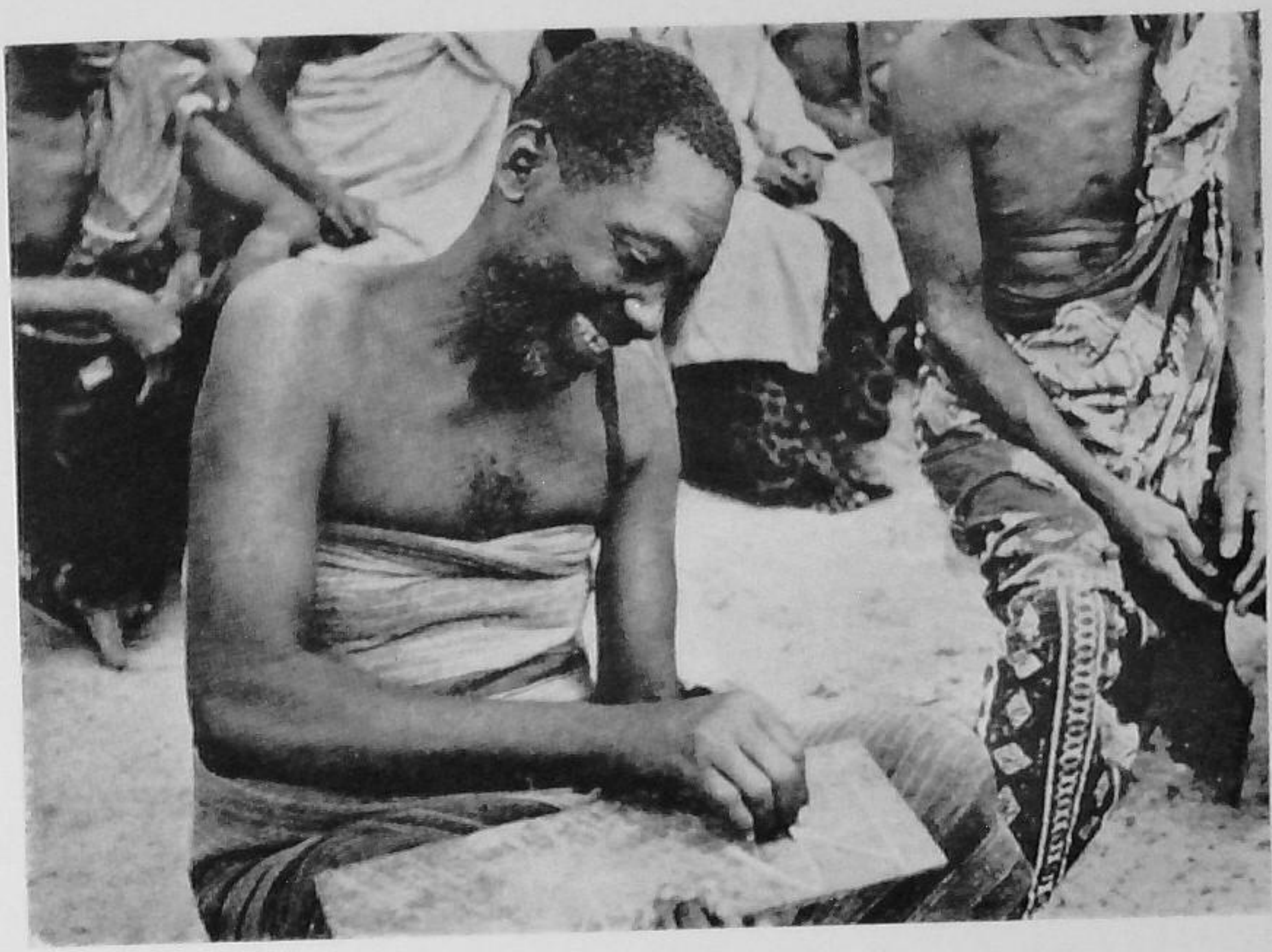
It is certainly useful for the librarian to be acquainted with the local folklore and, to an even greater degree with the population's way of thinking, expressing itself, and reacting; as also with the various forms of symbolism to which it is partial. Otherwise he may find, to his surprise, that his clearest recommendations which, to him, carry the greatest conviction, produce an effect that he had by no means anticipated.

It must not be forgotten, however, that the incipient library must develop, and that it is not solely progress in education that will enable it to reach the higher level it must attain. The real factors in its development will obviously be the professional gifts and technical knowledge possessed by the librarian-sociologist. What is demanded of him is, not that he shall be less familiar with the problems of his profession than are his colleagues in more favoured areas, but that, on the contrary, he shall be more familiar with them, so that he may adapt them more effectively to the conditions with which he has to deal.

Here, however, at this first stage of its existence, a library is also, as it were, a transitional body, which can only attain to its maximum usefulness if it is fitted into a wider, fuller, and more influential cultural ensemble. The complex problems raised by the economic and cultural development of a given area involve an expenditure of effort, a number of specialists, and financial resources that are beyond the means of a small library. In the same way, and for the same reasons, the educational museum, whose role, at this particular cultural level, is no less important than that of the library, cannot be envisaged as an independent entity. Both are essential elements; they are at first merged, fitted into the general educational experiment; later on, as the cultural progress they have helped to guide proceeds, they separate and develop on parallel lines, as in normally developed communities that can appreciate them to the full and contribute to their maintenance.

THE BIOGRAPHY OF GROUP III

Group III, which undertook to examine the broad and comprehensive topic which has just been outlined, was composed of 12 persons. The leader was Miss Yvonne Oddon, librarian of the Musée de l'Homme in Paris. To her great technical knowledge of both



The first step—learning how to read and write. He, and millions of others like him, now need public library services.

People in this district get mobile library service. Many other regions are less fortunate.





For a cash outlay of 75 cents, the women of a town fitted up this public library in rent-free quarters. The bookcase was a discarded bread and cake rack donated by the grocer. Old automobile licence plates were bent and painted to make bookends.

librarianship and ethnography has been added a rich variety of experience in various under-developed areas of the world. Five of the 10 participants were in search of assistance to know how to promote or guide cultural development in their own countries; these five came from Ceylon, Egypt, two different regions of India, and Tunisia. Three other members represented countries (Australia and Canada) where libraries are already established and incorporated in a national or regional scheme, but where geographical conditions provide obstacles to development. Two other members of the group were library advisers and experts, one being engaged in field work in Malaya on behalf of the British Council, the other being an authority on library co-ordination and central administration. The representative from Germany, who could not arrive until the Seminar was half over, was, because of that fact, more an observer than a participant.

These 12 people had a wider geographical distribution and a greater diversity of background than either of the other two groups in the Seminar. Whether because of this factor in spite of it, Group III early attained an integration and community spirit which deepened as the Seminar progressed. There was almost incessant hot debate and disagreement; a candid camera picture of the group on one occasion showed every member talking simultaneously. But out of the clash of opinion came agreement, and the members of the group were almost equally proud of both.

It is impossible to capture the spirit of the group, but a brief history may be given of its activities.

The first three meetings of the group were spent in listening to each participant in turn give a short account of the present library situation in his own country and of his particular individual problems. This first introduction of the members to each other proved to be most valuable: they got acquainted without any waste of time and gained a first general idea of each other's field of interest, special concerns, and personality.

At the next meeting, the objectives of the group were discussed at length and it was decided that activity should be pursued along two lines.

First there was the individual work of the participants. It was agreed that through contacts and discussions with each other, and through personal research in the Seminar library, each member should be able to take back to his country practical recommendations which could be adapted to local circumstances. It was thought that in some cases these personal contributions might be adapted for publication in library journals.

The second line of activity, and the one which is considered in this report, was the joint study by the group of the whole problem of library services in under-developed areas. The group leader had prepared a detailed outline of the various aspects of the problem which the group studied with great care and resolved to make the basis for its group effort. In view of the lack of publications on public library services in under-developed regions, the group accepted as one of its main responsibilities the preparation of a detailed report which could be published as a guide for colleagues in areas where the provision of such services to fundamental education is needed.

Even at the outset, there were no signs of indifference among the participants. Questions, remarks, expressions of surprise or of interest flew constantly across the table, a somewhat limited space, and brought the members of the group into a spirit of such intimate working relationship that it became easy for the group to organize itself, once it had decided what it wished to do.

A steering committee of three members was elected. It was called the Watchdog Committee by the others and the Doghouse Committee by itself. This committee took charge of timing the discussion, giving general announcements, keeping the room in good order, and dealing with late-comers. A system of fines was devised with provision for subsequent collective purchases: the first being a bottle of orange juice to cool off the speakers during heated discussions.

The main working outline was studied by the group and it was decided that each major topic should be placed under the responsibility of a committee, each member of the group to join at least two committees. Because of the Watchdog activity, nine committees of three to four members each were ready to start working the next day, according to the following regulations: (1) Each committee could meet when and where it pleased, except when general group meetings were taking place. (2) Committee reports had to be submitted to the group on the date agreed upon by the master schedule. (3) Committees should elect their own rapporteurs who would act as chairmen of the groups on the days the committee reports were presented, the Watchdogs being collectively responsible for good order and fair practice. (4) After group discussion of each committee's report, the rapporteur would modify and revise the report so as to include the group conclusions. (5) The final mimeographed version of each committee's report would then lie on the table and be available to all members of the group.

The last three days before the total group report was to be

presented to the entire Seminar were set aside for a careful revision and integration of all committee reports. This task was to be undertaken by the entire group, although a special editorial committee of three members was elected to take leadership.

This plan was in general followed, although the group activity proved to be so absorbing and time-consuming that members had little opportunity for personal study and research. There was time, however, for several special activities. The leader of Group II organized a special demonstration of film-strips and other audio-visual instruments and techniques. There were also special informal inter-group meetings called by the participants themselves to discuss specific subjects. Two such meetings, which drew participants from all three Seminar groups, were suggested by members of Group III; one concerned extension work in rural areas and another library installations and equipment.

The language barrier was not a drawback. Since there was but one non-English speaking participant for most of the Seminar, whispered translation could easily be given by the interpreter.

By the end of the third week, the 10 committee reports had been discussed by the group and duplicated. Most of the reports ranged from three to five type written pages. In order to give to the final report a certain unity of presentation and style, the group's editorial committee had first to check on overlapping subjects and make all necessary cross references; sometimes it was necessary to rewrite part of the text. While these activities were taking place, other members of the group had time to complete research in the Seminar library or to work on their personal plans. Finally, the entire group considered the integrated report in detail and adopted it unanimously.

The group leader reported to the director of the Seminar that "the feelings of the group members were without doubt or exception those of genuine mutual satisfaction." Everyone present at the Seminar would readily agree.

THE REPORT OF GROUP III

The problem discussed in this report is how to provide and integrate library services in a general programme of mass education, starting at the level which is usually described by Unesco as "fundamental education" and involving, more particularly, the under-developed areas of the world.

This report sets out to show that an effective library service forms an indispensable and integral feature of any fundamental education programme. It considers the special characteristics of under-developed areas and offers certain practical suggestions on the problems of establishing and maintaining an appropriate library service.

For the purpose of this study, the simplest course is to try to define the role of the library at two essential stages of its development :

(1) In the first place, there is the case of a community that is for the most part illiterate but in process of becoming literate. This is the stage where fundamental education projects are necessary. There are, of course, no libraries in the area, and the school system is still inadequate.

Here, then, the librarian's problem is how to devise and plan the introduction of books, in an educational experiment that is on a "prebook" basis; it is a question, at this stage, of "fitting in" to the local experiment, drawing up programmes, preparing and choosing appropriate types of educational materials, and evolving ways of spreading culture.

(2) Secondly there is the community that is for the most part literate. Teaching is organized, and there are sometimes centres for adults, and even a few libraries. But there is no organized public library system.

Here, the librarian's task will be to place reading on a stable basis and organize it as a public service. At this stage there should be intensive co-operation with the other cultural agencies, an extension of the services, and an expansion of the library's contents. The librarian's activities should be planned so as to be fitted into a regional or national library system. The library should become a cultural centre in itself.

Whether it is a question of organizing a library at the first or the second stage, the librarian will be doing pioneer work, under conditions that will require of him qualities and knowledge that he cannot derive from a librarian's training alone. Thus the survey of the environment that normally precedes the establishment of any library will probably create problems with which, as a librarian, he is not familiar, but which will necessarily have a considerable bearing on the direction and organization of his work.

In such circumstances even the most extensive technical knowledge in the field of librarianship and education is of no value without the information provided by an ethnographer as a result of a survey carried out on ethnographical principles, that is to say taking

into consideration all physical, economic, social and cultural factors. It will be readily understood how important some of these data may be to the librarian. The library's extension service, for instance, will be governed by factors of geography and population; it is necessary, not only to provide for means of transport that are adapted to local conditions, so as to ensure that the majority of the population shall be reached, but also to know the inhabitants' daily life and their usual centres and meeting-places.

It is moreover on the basis of the economic facts emerging from the survey that the librarian will compile an essential part of his stock, his first task being to obtain the educational material that is required for instructing the inhabitants as to the remedial measures to be applied: a film on deforestation, an exhibition of drawings or photographs on soil protection, or an extensive collection of pictures and pamphlets on agricultural methods and on small-scale rural craftsmanship. It will be seen, therefore, that there are various types of material to be assembled and various popularization techniques to be employed.

The principles and recommendations discussed and approved by the seminar's specialists are given in the following order:

(1) Basic characteristics of under-developed regions.
(2) The general education problem in under-developed regions.
(3) Importance of libraries in fundamental education programmes.
(4) Physical, economic, social and cultural factors which must be taken into account in the establishment of a library in under-developed communities.
(5) Establishment of the library.
(6) Installation and equipment of the library.
(7) Library collections.
(8) Staff and training.
(9) Library regulation and operation.
(10) Library techniques.
(11) Library activities and extension work.
(12) Co-ordination and legislation.
(13) Means of ensuring stability and continuity of library service.

What are under-developed regions?

These may be described as regions in which the mass of the people have no access to the opportunities which will enable them to adjust themselves to the pressures of twentieth century technical civilization, a condition which may result from poverty or retarded social and cultural development. The prevalence of ignorance, ill-health and unhappiness, all inter-woven factors, are frequently features of such regions.

Characteristics

Population Factors

Over-population in relation to the resources of the region tends to impoverish the community and handicap effective group co-operation. An unstable or nomadic population also creates unfavourable conditions. A special problem under this heading is presented in the case of a large group of immigrants, e.g., displaced persons, residing in an alien land. A sparse population presents problems of another kind.

Economic Conditions

Weak economy may be due to various circumstances, e.g., soil impoverishment (but which could be prevented or halted by the application of appropriate technical methods) or the exhaustion of local natural resources, which have in the past provided the people with the means of living.

A miscellany of other factors may also have serious adverse economic repercussions, e.g., mal-distribution of local productivity, local practices in the matter of land ownership and succession, and major catastrophes such as wars, floods, and famines.

Social Conditions

The social structure of certain communities is such that the introduction of reforms becomes a lengthy and difficult undertaking. These difficulties may be inherent in the general political organization, in the people's conception of authority and of what is right, in the position of women in the community, and in broad questions of social and family relationships.

Cultural Conditions

A region may be under-developed for reasons which derive from the community's religious beliefs, traditions, languages, scale of values, conception of the universe and attitude towards their own culture and towards other peoples.

Historical and Political Conditions

In some regions, the causes of "under-development" are obscure and derive from the past, necessitating historical research in order to pin-point the origins. Again, powerful religious, political or social prejudices may currently oppose the principle of mass education.

Other unpromising political conditions include the existence of substantial racial, linguistic or alien minorities. A special problem is presented by the existence of large "under-developed" groups to be found on the outskirts and in the slums of some great cities.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION PROBLEM IN UNDER-DEVELOPED REGIONS

Fundamental education aims at raising the standard of living of under-developed communities. In order to achieve this objective it is necessary to teach them:

(*a*) To be aware of their own problems.

(*b*) To be aware also of their resources.

As their understanding of the need for progress develops, they should be provided with the technical knowledge that makes such progress possible.

The main problems in such regions may concern: agriculture, soil conservation, co-operative organizations, problems of better housing, handicrafts and small industries, etc., as well as social and cultural matters such as illiteracy, ability to use a language of culture, the awakening of a sense of civic and social responsibilities, an appreciation of the traditional culture and an understanding of the importance of international co-operation.

It is obvious that the complete problem of fundamental education in under-developed areas can hardly be solved by libraries alone. (Greenland seems to be an exception as the only official agency for adult education in that country is the public library service.)

There are many media by which people may be taught how to improve group co-operation, and how to understand more of that

contemporary technical civilization which is directly and indirectly affecting their daily lives, and which it is imperative that they should understand, at least in simple essentials. The library should form one of the basic and indispensable instruments.

IMPORTANCE OF LIBRARIES IN FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

Libraries possess certain characteristics which make them particularly suitable agencies for adult education in under-developed areas. The experience and recorded skills of thinkers and experts on an infinite variety of human problems are at the disposal of those who can use books. Even the smallest of libraries can reveal new and exciting horizons to the newly literate.

Among those features of libraries which make them particularly suited to adult education in under-developed regions are the following:

(*a*) The library collects and distributes the fruits of human experience.

(*b*) Its resources can be freely available to all ages, classes and sections of the community.

(*c*) Its material is not forced upon people. On the contrary they choose what they need for particular purposes. It follows that the library's impartial methods inspire confidence and that this channel of education should be free from suspicion of ulterior motives. The library offers a neutral meeting-ground for the whole community, irrespective of social, religious or cultural differences.

(*d*) The library is a flexible instrument which can be adapted to any combination of local circumstances. A well-chosen collection of books and other materials administered by an enlightened and understanding staff, can exert a powerful local leverage in the campaign against ignorance.

(*e*) Once the fundamental education experiment is concluded, the library can remain as one of the most stable and powerful agencies for adult education.

PHYSICAL, ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL FACTORS WHICH MUST BE TAKEN INTO ACCOUNT IN THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A LIBRARY IN UNDER-DEVELOPED COMMUNITIES

Basic Survey

Considerable risk of failure would attend an attempt to set up a library service in any area without a preliminary survey of the area, and any premature and unsuccessful attempt to establish a library in a given area would create a tradition of "library failure". This in turn would multiply the difficulties of those who in later years might endeavour to re-establish the library.

It is therefore considered fundamental that there should be available the results of an adequate ethnological, social, economic and physical survey of the area, before any plans are made for the library service. Without this knowledge it is impossible to understand the people: the library must be geared directly to the daily lives and habits of the community it serves.

Any new survey contemplated should include a librarian in the team. If a reliable survey has already been made, its report should be studied by the librarian.

Favourable Factors

There are numerous features in a community which are favourable to the setting up of an effective library service. The tradition of an ancient and revered culture which permeates the people's lives offers a sturdy trunk upon which the library may be grafted. Those countries in which learning and knowledge are respected and honoured offer a fruitful field. Other such features include the following:

(*a*) An awareness of local community needs and the desire to satisfy those needs.
(*b*) A conscious urge to learn and develop.
(*c*) The existence of various particular incentives to become educated, e.g., occupational, social or financial ambition.
(*d*) A homogeneity of language, race, religion.
(*e*) A sufficient degree and a steady annual increase of literacy.
(*f*) The existence of reasonably compact and stable communities, readily accessible to each other.
(*g*) A genuine interest in education and social welfare on the part of the local and national authorities and officials.

Unfavourable Factors

The absence of some of these favourable factors need not necessarily prevent the setting up of a library service. In any given region, it is necessary to assess the various positive and negative factors, and then to determine whether, on balance, the prospects of a successful library service are promising or unpromising. No rigid rule can be laid down.

Unfavourable features include the following:

(*a*) An extreme or unhealthy climate.

(*b*) Ill-health or malnutrition arising from any cause (over-population, unhygienic occupations, etc.).

(*c*) Poor communications.

(*d*) The absence of any significant tradition or experience of group co-operation for common improvement.

(*e*) The existence of a local language which is not used as a language of "culture", side by side with a second language, the language of "culture", which is used or understood only by a small minority.

(*f*) A local tradition which disapproves of the education of women. (N.B. "Teach a mother and you teach a family".)

(*g*) A poor economy.

(*h*) Apathy of the *élite* towards the education of the people.

In addition to these unfavourable factors, there may be a resistance to any attempt to bring education to under-developed groups. It may be due to the desire of powerful sections in the community to retain or increase political, social, religious or financial dominance. It may derive from hostility to cultures introduced or imposed from alien sources, leading to disinterest or positive revolt. Serious conflict between competing religious, political, social or cultural organizations may also impede education. Perhaps the greatest obstacle of all however would be a political situation in which a policy of discouraging the enlightenment and self-development of the mass of the people is deliberately pursued. Special problems arise in those regions which do not govern themselves, and in which there exist suspicion and hostility towards those who do govern.

Importance to the Library of Usual and Traditional Means of Assembly and Mass Communication

It is important for the librarian to be familiar with the normal and traditional methods and agencies for communicating information

in the region. Special attention should be given to those institutions and bodies which are used by the people for purposes of assembly or meeting for social or other purposes, e.g., churches, schools, town squares and market places, missions, rural centres, fairs and festivals, religious gatherings, labour unions, and all kinds of societies and clubs for men, women and children.

It is important for the librarian to have some knowledge of the prestige and reputation of local institutions and means of communication before entering into co-operation. The library should be careful to avoid becoming identified with any body or institution which is regarded with hostility or distrust by a significant section of the community. It is again stressed that the library should operate from a neutral point, at which people of all kinds can meet, without feeling that their attendance at that particular place conflicts with some other loyalty.

Most communities will include individual persons who can be of great service in having a newly formed library service accepted by the local people. The leader of the community the dominant personalities, or (if there are any) those who already appreciate the value of knowledge and education, should be sought out and their active help and participation enlisted. The formation of a library committee comprising local reputable people goes a long way toward establishing the library in the eyes of the common man, provided that the personnel of the committee are really in touch with the common man and possess his confidence. The committee should be so composed that, like the library itself, it is free from suspicion of prejudice or vested interest (see also *Library Committee*, p. 117).

In addition to local factors which concern the library, consideration should be given to all relevant statutes and regulations, as it is clearly necessary that any library set up in any locality must conform to any laws and ordinances which might affect it (see also *Public Library Legislation*, p. 137).

Library Objectives and Programme

Following an examination of those factors in the survey which are important from the library's point of view, the next task is to formulate the library's objectives and to plan the programme.

The main objectives in an under-developed area are to fit in effectively with the general fundamental education programme by:

(*a*) Choosing, providing and utilizing the suitable education material.
(See also *Library Collections*, p. 120)

(*b*) Establishing and maintaining effective co-operation with individuals and groups.
(*c*) Becoming a permanent and dynamic institution in the cultural life of the community.

Preparation of the Programme

Having regard to the assessed needs, interests and resources of the community, the library's programme should be planned with regard to the following:
(*a*) The area to be served; the number of possible readers.
(*b*) Staff.
(*c*) Collections: estimate of initial stock.
(*d*) Premises and equipment.
(*e*) Methods of library management.
(*f*) Scope of the services.
(*g*) Present budget.
(*h*) Possibilities of funds and co-operation in the future.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE LIBRARY

Where a comprehensive fundamental education project is in progress, the problems of establishing a library are simplified as there is an administrative organization for the whole undertaking.

Even then, however, the following will require expert attention:
(*a*) Suitable and separate accommodation (see *Installation and Equipment*, p. 117).
(*b*) Careful selection of materials (see *Library Collections*, p. 120).
(*c*) Specially trained personnel (see *Staff and Training*, p. 124).

Where there is no general educational programme, and the factors are favourable for setting up a library the problems are more complex. They are even more complicated where there already exists in the community an inadequate and unco-ordinated library service.

In both cases it is necessary to initiate a library campaign.
(*a*) To arouse the interest of the public and community leaders, educating them concerning the needs and purposes of a library, through every possible means of communication, e.g., press, radio, films, public meetings, etc.
(*b*) To enlist the financial support and sympathetic interest of organizations and authorities. As part of the campaign to stimulate

local interest and enthusiasm it has been found that a successful demonstration of library service, even on a small scale, is always extremely effective.

A committee should be formed representing the various shades of opinion and interests in the community. The membership of the committee should be strictly limited to persons directly interested in the library's welfare; it has been said that no library is better than the people who operate it. The librarian *must* be the *ex-officio* secretary of such a committee.

Functions of the library committee:

(*a*) The library committee should be concerned with the making of policy; the library staff with its execution.

(*b*) The committee is to work with the staff in the formulation and periodic revision of library objectives.

(*c*) It should act on the one hand as a liaison between the library and the local community; it should act on the other hand, as a link between the library and the regional or national authorities.

(*d*) It should secure adequate financial support for the library, and be responsible for its financial administration. The librarian should, however, be authorized to disburse a certain amount varying according to the budget of the library.

(*e*) The committee's functions may include the appointment of the librarian. At any rate it should be consulted if the appointment is made by a higher authority. The appointment of subordinate staff may frequently be left to the judgment of the librarian.

In addition to the members of the community who serve on the committee, it will often be found that there are other people willing to take an active interest in the library, and these may be formed into a non-official body called "Friends of the Library". This body can be of considerable assistance in developing the library's public relations.

INSTALLATION AND EQUIPMENT OF THE LIBRARY

Situation and Access

Wherever possible the library should be situated at a point in the area which is easily accessible to readers (e.g., near river crossings, market places or religious centres, etc.).

It is preferable that the library should occupy quarters which will not be used for any other purposes, as it is impossible to maintain

an attractively arranged library or an atmosphere conducive to reading, when the collection and exhibits are being continually dismantled.

When the library is housed in a general community centre, it should be directly accessible from the outside rather than through other sections of the centre, thus making supervision easier.

New Buildings

Where a new building is planned, special considerations must be given to climate, ventilation or heating, including verandahs for protection from sun or tropical downpours).

Verandah space, terraces or gardens may also be used for various purposes, e.g., for outdoor reading or as places where children may be left while parents are visiting the library.

Plan and Arrangement

Where the library is situated in a community centre, it should be accommodated in a room apart from the centre's main recreation room so that quiet will be assured. This arrangement also provides convenient near-by accommodation for library activities such as film shows, discussion groups, and exhibitions.

There should also be an adjoining work room for the library staff and educators, with a room suitable for storing materials for exhibits. A separate study room for advanced readers is desirable in order to provide some quiet working space away from the general reading room.

It is advisable for the flooring of the library to be on one level and if possible at ground level. Although existing buildings may be the only available accommodation, arrangements should be made for the above minimum requirements.

Books are available dealing with plans for buildings in tropical areas, and when new buildings are planned it is advisable to study the publications which Unesco has issued or recommends on this subject.

For decoration, encouragement may be given to local talent by having pictures or murals depicting scenes or figures of interest to the community.

Furniture

The furniture must be extremely mobile in order to facilitate the arrangement of exhibits, and chairs and tables must be strong and of a type easily folded and stacked.

The customs of the community must be considered when planning furniture, because it may be the habit of the people to sit on mats, or, alternatively, high stools. It is advisable to use furniture and materials of local manufacture as being more suitable than furniture of foreign design. The library should of course provide a children's room with suitable furniture, equipment and books. The desk of the librarian responsible for routine work with readers should contain drawers that can be locked. Other necessary items are: standard-size boxes or trays for the card catalogue; a file for pamphlets, pictures or other flimsy materials; and cupboards for posters, exhibits, pictures, films, filmstrips, etc. Catalogues of library furniture and equipment may be consulted for detailed information.

Before shelving is installed, display racks may be used giving greater access and publicity to books for the illiterate and newly literate. Shelving must be made according to standards generally accepted for public library equipment.

Climatic conditions causing dampness and a profusion of book pests such as white ants and silver-fish must be taken into consideration when planning shelves. Floors must be dry and pest-proof and it may be necessary to place shelves at some distance from the walls and the floors in order to diminish damage caused by mildew and pests.

Exhibit Equipment

When a library is being built, provision may be made for built-in showcases where displays may be housed attractively with inside lighting when electricity is available. Portable exhibit equipment must be collapsible and light in weight. Wherever possible it should be made of water-proof materials. Lacking such articles, it is necessary to provide water-proof covers for adequate protection. Exhibit materials must be of a size which will pack into boxes for easy handling and transportation.

There should be small book-trucks (bookmobiles, or bookvans) for transporting books and other materials to outlying deposit stations or branches. The style and construction of these vehicles will depend upon local conditions. (See *Mobile Service*, p. 135.)

Maintenance

Maintenance problems will include deterioration caused by climatic conditions (such as dryness or humidity) and by insect pests.

Local architects and Health Departments should be consulted.

In order to publicize the library for non-literate and newly literate persons, signs may be placed outside the building and at the entrance to the library. Windows may be used for book displays.

It may be necessary in certain circumstances to provide supervision at the exit from the library, in order to protect library property and help readers to learn to take care of books in bad weather.

LIBRARY COLLECTIONS

A library cannot function without an appropriate collection. In most under-developed areas there is a pressing need for materials made or selected particularly to suit the local library user. The efficiency of the library service is governed largely by the quantity and quality of its collection

Composition of the Collections

Library collections, including audio-visual materials, should be built up in order to meet the community's special requirements which in most under-developed areas should include the following topics or fields:

(*a*) Improvement of local means of livelihood such as in agriculture and industry.
(*b*) First aid in health and hygiene problems.
(*c*) Dietetical advice.
(*d*) Child care.
(*e*) Household economy, thrift and saving.
(*f*) Small industries and handicrafts.
(*g*) Basic facts on science, natural history, history of man, etc.
(*h*) Local geography and history of the community.
(*i*) Civic matters, co-operation and international understanding.
(*j*) Diverse recreational collections.

In general, the contents of the library should express impartiality and be as a whole a good vehicle to instruct, teach and recreate having regard to the needs of readers of all ages and different interests and standards of culture. Its final aim is to form taste and judgment and give a real sense of individual, collective, and civic responsibility.

General Principles of Selection

The library as an integral part of an educational programme should be attached, without being static, to the mental and physical situation of the people.

The materials which constitute its collection must therefore:

(*a*) Be perfectly adapted to local conditions, e.g., standards of culture, degree of literacy, the mentality of the people, their religious beliefs, etc.

(*b*) Be gradually progressive in difficulty of techniques and complexity of facts.

(*c*) Present as far as possible a personal element that gives a convincing sense of reality.

(*d*) Approach unfamiliar subjects through those which are familiar.

(*e*) Proceed from the concrete to the abstract.

(*f*) Produce in the people an active attitude rather than a passive one.

(*g*) Be manufactured as far as possible with local labour and material.

(*h*) Make abundant use of the familiar words and expressions, jests, metaphors, local folklore, etc.

(*i*) Be easy and economical to handle, preserve, transport and wherever possible to duplicate in case of need.

Types of Material

Exhibit Material

Fundamental education libraries will employ a variety of materials besides reading matter. The most easily comprehensible at the very early stages of literacy are exhibits, especially three dimensional exhibits, using real objects and specimens.

Other materials which are valuable at this stage are posters, panels, and pictures (preferably with some kind of movable device which can be operated by a demonstrator or by the public).

Slides and Film Strips Projection

(*a*) *Slides* or separate "dia-positive" pictures are usually presented in two formats: the standard size ($3\frac{1}{4}'' \times 4''$) and $2'' \times 2''$ size (obtained with a 35mm film roll). They can be easily handled and used individually for different demonstrations. Hand-made slides of standard $3\frac{1}{4} \times 4$ size can be cheaply manufactured with frosted glass or plastic materials.

(*b*) Usual *film strips* are continuous bands of 35mm film containing from 10 to 100 pictures. They can be made up of photographs, drawings, cartoons, charts, etc., arranged in a logical sequence with a definite teaching purpose. It is therefore easier to tell a story with film-strips than with slides, although in both cases the projection can be accompanied by spoken or recorded commentary which will have the added advantages of language teaching.

These materials are now relatively cheap and easy to procure. Kerosene lanterns can be used when no electricity is available.

Films

Moving pictures have the advantage that they can be shown collectively to a large number of people. They are particularly useful in the demonstration of techniques involving action. Slow motion and magnified detail are specially effective when teaching science. However film conventions (e.g., trick photography, close-ups, slow motion, etc.) are incomprehensible to people unused to them. Films which are especially made for limited purposes or areas are very expensive. The film apparatus is complicated, and it needs electric power.

Silent films with a commentary in the local language are more effective than sound films using a foreign language. Cartoons are effective if they employ familiar scenes and types and if the succession of pictures is not too rapid. Sound recordings can be used in teaching languages, or as a speaking accompaniment or a musical background for a film demonstration. They are particularly useful in introducing programmes with folk music.

Radio

As a general principle, the programmes should always be adapted to and especially organized for the community. It is also recommended that the speaker should as far as possible be a personality known to the people. The programmes should be broadcast at regular intervals fixed well in advance.

Responsibility for radio equipment as well as the selection and use of radio programmes in the community's educational activities should, at this stage, be given to the librarian.

In many countries radio materials may be handled by different agencies from whom the librarian may be able to borrow them.

Television

Television may be mentioned with a reference to its possible future use as a very successful combination of the techniques of the radio and the film.

Reading material

(*a*) *Number of Books in Stock.* One should not fix a minimum figure, still less an upper limit. But it is important not to start without sufficient reading material, covering all the subjects listed under *Composition of the Collection*, p. 120). It could however be recalled that the American Library Association considers that three books per head of the population are necessary in smaller communities.

(*b*) *Relative Importance of Educational and Recreational Matter.* The ratio of these two categories will depend on the aims pursued. The approach to the library user should be first to attract, then to arouse interest, then to retain it, and, without ceasing to inform, to educate and give inspiration.

(*c*) *Pamphlets and Periodicals.* At the early stages, pamphlets should be preferred to books as they are more easily and quickly assimilated. Furthermore, pamphlets, being cheaper than books, can be used in greater quantities. If thought desirable, pamphlets may be distributed free, but as soon as possible the reader should be made familiar with books and book lending.

Periodicals have special advantages at this stage; especially local papers which give up-to-date news of local interest.

(*d*) *Physical Aspects of Books.* The pocket-sized book has been found to have definite practical advantages. The type chosen should be between 24 and 36 points, and should be very readable. The text itself should be very well spaced with short lines, wide margins, and numerous and well-defined paragraphs.

There should be a large number of pictures, if possible in colour. All methods of illustration may be used (wood engraving, linocuts, etc.) preferably done by local artists. Special efforts should be made to discover, or even to promote, local talent.

(*e*) *Duplicate Copies.* The newly literate reader has a greater need to use his books individually and for this reason a large number of duplicate copies should be supplied.

(*f*) *Purchase and Maintenance.* The librarian will ensure that the collections remain alive, in good condition, and up to date.

He will naturally make the best arrangements for buying them cheaply. (See *Co-ordination and Legislation*, p. 137.)

A system of exchanges and inter-library loans should be developed wherever possible. (See *Co-ordination and Legislation*, p. 137.)

(*g*) *Collections.* When a fundamental education experiment is in progress the librarian should be a member of the body whose duty it is to produce the books and other educational materials. Selection of library materials should always be the responsibility of the librarian.

Text-books produced for use in schools should be used with adults only as a last resort. As soon as possible they must be replaced by books dealing with adult interests and ways of life.

Translations should be used sparingly, but they may be necessary at a later stage of literacy when dealing with scientific or technical matter.

The literary form should make use of colloquial expressions, proverbs, etc. (See *General Principles of Selection*, p. 121). Books written in the form of dialogues are particularly effective and serial narratives have also been found very popular.

(*h*) *Linguistic Problems.* The question of languages is to be considered during the preliminary survey. A proper balance should be reached between material in the local language, bilingual material, and that which is written only in the language of "culture".

One should find a medium between the conclusions reached by the surveyor and the wishes of the people (a desire to read in the language of culture rather than in the mother tongue, or vice versa). But in every country where the need is being felt, the production of a technical vocabulary, at least an elementary one, should be promoted and subsidized, to make possible the teaching of elementary science and techniques in the local language.

STAFF AND TRAINING

The librarian in a fundamental education area must possess many qualities beyond a mere knowledge of library techniques. Besides some training in the social sciences, an aptitude for team work, a practical knowledge of modern educational methods, and familiarity with relevant technical and professional literature, he must have the spirit of a pioneer. Imagination, tact, patience and enthusiasm are vital qualities. A balanced outlook on life, a sense of humour, good

health, and an ability to do necessary manual work on occasion—all of these qualities are essential, if the librarian is to see and grasp all the opportunities to expand and improve the library's activities.

In under-developed regions there are two main problems to be considered:

(*a*) The total absence of professional librarians.

(*b*) A nucleus of professional librarians, numerically inadequate to the desirable development of libraries.

Therefore we have to consider two types of library workers and two types of training:

(*a*) Elementary training for those who will be engaged in the non-professional tasks. This will consist mostly of practical demonstrations of library techniques in a library and possibly the attendance at some short courses. Correspondance courses do exist, but they have a very limited usefulness, and are not recommended if there is any other training available.

(*b*) Professional training at a graduate library school for those who expect to become leaders in the profession in various fields and who eventually will undertake the training of others. It is preferable that the library school should be an integral part of a well-established institution of higher education, with proximity to a number of good librarians.

Composition and Qualification of the Staff

Where there is no professional staff, the appointment of a library organizer and adviser is of primary importance. He should remain in office until the library system is firmly established and the future staff has been trained. A minimum of three to five years must be allowed for.

A minimum staff should consist of the chief library organizer, library asistants, clerical and maintenance staff.

Both the educational and personal qualifications of each group must be considered; only the minimum requirements are noted below, As the success of the whole scheme depends on the qualifications of the library staff, the danger of considering that any one can become a successful librarian cannot be too strongly emphasized.

Professional Staff

Chief Librarian

(*a*) *Educational qualifications.* He [1] should be preferably a university graduate and should have successfully completed a course in library service in an approved library school, and have had a wide experience in library work.

(*b*) *Personal qualifications.* He should be a leader in community affairs, and a wise administrator of public funds. He should have a vision of the scope of library usefulness, a sympathetic understanding of the community needs, and adaptability so that all available material may be put to its greatest use. He should also possess a sound and broad knowledge of literature. His educational and personal qualifications should win for him official recognition. He must be of such calibre that he will enjoy high social and official status.

Library assistants

(*a*) *Educational Qualifications.* A proportion of the subordinate staff should if possible be university graduates and should have completed successfully a course in library science in some approved library school.

(*b*) *Personal Qualifications.* These staff members may become heads of departments and leaders in extension and adult education work. Therefore they should have had some experience as community leaders (teachers, boy scouts, etc.). They should possess an inquisitive mind and an ability to co-ordinate their knowledge.

Non-professional assistants

(*a*) *Educational Qualifications.* The ordinary library clerk may be a future librarian; therefore he must have, as a minimum education qualification, a good secondary education.

(*b*) *Personal Qualifications.* He should be a good mixer, possess an interest in broadening his knowledge, a desire to help others, a willingness to work hard and to co-operate with his associates. It is useful for all library assistants and clerks to be competent typists.

1. The masculine pronoun is used here for convenience. Both men and women have done excellent work as library organizers in fundamental education areas.

Training of non-professional staff

The chief librarian should supervise the training of the non-professional staff.

Preliminary Training

This can be accomplished primarily by supervised and diversified work in the library including such tasks as filing cards, keeping simple records, and handling circulation work. This type of training will suffice for those subordinate assistants who have not the necessary qualifications to progress beyond the usual clerical standard.

Advanced Training

For those who, because of their educational and personal qualifications, will become heads of departments or be in charge of community centre libraries, a more serious programme of training should be undertaken. These selected members of the staff should be considered "librarians in training". [1] The following should be their programme:

(*a*) Reading of professional literature should be encouraged, even assigned.

(*b*) Conferences giving an insight into library policy and methods should be held at frequent intervals.

(*c*) The work of cataloguing, classifying, and record keeping must be carefully supervised and problems discussed.

(*d*) A thorough grounding in reference and bibliographical tools should be continuous.

(*e*) Responsibility for carrying out certain phases of the work should be delegated to the "librarian in training" as soon as he is capable of undertaking them.

(*f*) When the "librarian in training" shows unusual promise he should be sent to a recognized library school. In choosing the library school it would be wise to consider the additional advantages to be derived from the opportunity of visiting many well-established libraries.

1. The term "librarian in training" is used to give these members of the staff a certain status and to ensure that they will not be taken over by some other department as soon as their increased usefulness is apparent.

A library development programme may have to start without the assistance of a library school. To justify the establishment of a library school or course a certain number of prospective library positions must be considered and budgeted for. If there are not a sufficient number of prospective positions it may be more economical and more profitable to send the students to a foreign library school until the demand for librarians justifies the establishment of a local school.

The curriculum of a library school in under-developed countries should emphasize:

(*a*) Sociological study of various areas and special fundamental education techniques.
(*b*) Basic facts on modern "active" educational methods.
(*c*) Sufficient grounding in the basic technical processes of cataloguing, classification and record keeping.
(*d*) A review and appreciation of general literature emphasizing the value of certain types of literature for certain types of readers; presentation of attractive reading lists; club programmes.
(*e*) Study and use of audio-visual materials.
(*f*) An extensive study of bibliographies, reference books and technical journals.
(*g*) Study of sound administration methods. Types of buildings, furniture, equipment, staff, budget.
(*h*) Publicity methods.
(*i*) Extension work. Group leadership.
(*j*) Library legislation.

No library degree or diploma should be granted unless the theoretical instruction is supplemented by a substantial period of practical experience, whether undertaken before, during, or after the course.

It cannot be emphasized too strongly that the library schools are established to train and fit librarians to take their place as adult educationists living in a modern world. Therefore they must give a practical training and aim to inspire the students with a desire to serve their communities.

In under-developed countries, the training should at first give less emphasis to the comparative study of numerous classification schemes. It is more desirable to teach thoroughly one sound classification and one sound method of cataloguing.

The emoluments given to both the chief librarian and to his staff should take into account that prestige should be attached to such functions, and they should be commensurate with the educational and personal qualifications required and with the responsibilities placed upon them. The salaries should compare favourably with those of the administrative and teaching staffs.

In library schools the salaries of the teaching staff should be at the same level as that of the professors in other departments. All posts should be pensionable, or at least on a provident fund basis.

LIBRARY REGULATION AND OPERATION

Library regulations should be kept to a minimum and should consist of a few very simple rules necessary to make the library function smoothly and to discourage abuse of the service. The library regulations should be framed to cover such matters as the following:

(*a*) Free access to all men and women in the community regardless of race, creed or politics.
(*b*) Days and time of opening.
(*c*) Maximum number, and classes of books, which may be borrowed at one time.
(*d*) Care of books and library property generally.
(*e*) Orderly conduct.
(*f*) Holidays.
(*g*) Penalties for infringement of regulations.

Regulations expressed in forbidding terms should be avoided. A series of "Don'ts" discourages the reader and creates an uninviting atmosphere. This is particularly important for newly literate people who are being encouraged to acquire the habit of using libraries.

The precise terms of these regulations would vary according to local circumstances. The times when the library is open should be related to the working customs of the local people and their recreational practices. The imposition of penalties, through small fines or otherwise, should be approached with leniency, particularly in a region where the library service has just begun.

The librarian should aim at making membership of the library a privilege of which the library users are proud. The reader's membership card, which may mean little to library users in advanced countries, may be regarded as a prized possession by the newly literate.

The library's records should include statistics which provide a condensed record of the work accomplished by the library. An analysis of the book-loans will indicate to the librarian the reading interests and tastes of his public. Records should also be kept of the amount spent on various broad classes of reading and educational material so that planned book selection is made effective. To begin with, the statistics recorded may be few and simple, but as the service develops, further analyses may be made of such factors as the age-groups of library users, of occupations, of the districts in which they live, etc. All these factors are of value to the librarian as a guide to those features of the library which he should strengthen and develop.

For planned financial administration, comparative records should also be kept under the main elements in money received and money expended.

A regular report on the work of the library should be published from the beginning, for the information of the public and of the governing body of the library. Such a report widely circulated in the locality has great publicity value for the library. The report should not be a dull summary of facts and figures but should be presented in an interesting and graphic fashion. One or two effective drawings or photographs will often convey more about the library service than long passages of print. A library magazine or bulletin, published at frequent intervals, also helps to consolidate the library's position in the community.

Library Budget (see also *Public Library Legislation*, p. 137).

Source of funds. The library's financial estimates will indicate each and all of its sources of revenue, from public and private resources, from local, regional and national resources.

Public library services should, as their name indicates, be financed and governed principally by a public authority. A newly formed library service may be helped financially by other agencies, e.g., private philanthropy, grants from an educational trust or corporation. Money may also be raised locally by local private initiative. All these sources of financial aid are to be welcomed, but the financial policy of the library must be aimed at achieving a steady and guaranteed income from public funds.

Estimated expenditure should cover the broad headings of books, binding, salaries, furnishings and equipment, printing, heating,

lighting, maintenance of property and equipment, postage and transport, depreciations and sundries. No universally applicable rule can be laid down as to the proportion of the income which should be spent under these headings. But it can be said that the two most important elements in the library service are reading material and an able staff. The estimates for books and other educational material should be generous, and staff salaries should be related to an approved and adequate scale (See also *Public Library Legislation*, p. 137).

The pattern of the financial estimates of a newly formed library service in an under-developed region will vary from the pattern in a developed region, for various reasons. Relative expenditure on books and audio-visual material, for example, will be higher during the early years when a basic representative collection is being built up.

On the other hand, the proportion of the income spent on maintaining a small library building in an under-developed territory would be less than the proportion required to maintain elaborate and complex buildings in highly developed countries. One factor to be noted, however, is that in under-developed regions, the cost of replacing material is often a considerable item owing to losses and damage caused by such factors as climatic conditions, insect pests, bad roads, unstable population, etc.

Experience in many parts of the world has shown that considerable economies can be made by co-ordinating the work of separate library units, and by centralizing some common features in administration. (See also, p. 137.)

The affiliation of a local library unit to a national library association, where one exists, may bring such benefits as preferential terms in book purchase.

LIBRARY TECHNIQUES

General Principles.

When the library is part of a fundamental education programme, its techniques must possess the three basic qualities of simplicity, economy and adaptability. Elaborate procedures must be avoided because they will both handicap the library's users, who are unaccustomed to traditional library methods, and will occupy too great a proportion of the librarian's time. For instance, rather than perfecting an elaborate card catalogue (which the borrowers may still be unable to use),

it is better for the librarian to devote more attention to understanding his community and serving the public.

On the other hand, methodical techniques must be applied from the very beginning, to prevent chaos as the library grows and expands. If flexible methods are used at the outset, they can be adapted to a larger and more conventional type of library later. When establishing even a tiny library it is important to look ahead to the time when it may co-operate in a wider regional system.

Classification

In the early days of fundamental education library projects, a formal system of classification is superfluous, but when there is a sufficient stock to justify its use, some simple but widely recognized method (such as Dewey) should be adopted. It is well to group all types of material (books, pamphlets, illustrative and audio-visual materials) under subjects. If large subject divisions are used at first, they can be subdivided later as the need arises. Scholarly or purely scientific divisions in classification should be avoided

Cataloguing

In the beginning, the catalogue should be as elementary as possible, but is should never be omitted; for, if no catalogue is made in the first stages, the task of going back and cataloguing the whole collection would be very much more difficult after the library has grown. One practical suggestion is to make a fairly complete accession record or shelf list, and an author list, at first, and to use these later as a basis for the main catalogue. Audio-visual materials should be catalogued under the same headings as books.

The catalogue should be adapted to the borrowers' vocabulary and habits of thought. Thus, unfamiliar words and abstract subject headings should be avoided. In addition to the simple bibliographical information on the cards, the catalogue may well include brief descriptive or explanatory notes about the books. For adult education purposes it is sometimes found useful to include themes of interest which occur in fiction under the same subject headings as used for non-fiction. From the outset all catalogue cards should be typewritten if possible, or at least block printed, on cards of standard weight and dimensions.

Arrangement of the Books

When the library is part of a fundamental education project, the relevant library materials should be grouped by subject to fit in with the current community activity (such as a soil conservation experiment), and re-grouped from time to time as the readers' interests change. Display techniques, rather than normal shelf arrangement should be stressed. Arranging books side by side on shelves is a convention that newly literate persons may not readily understand.

Conventional distinctions between fiction and non-fiction should be ignored when library materials are being grouped according to themes of community interest. For example, significant stories of rural life may logically be placed with technical books, when the library is assisting in a community agricultural project.

If possible, it is well to have a special section or room set aside for library materials provided for the authorities conducting the adult education project. A catalogue of this professional library, with a subject arrangement, should be available.

Registration and Circulation

From the outset, the techniques of registering borrowers and circulating books should be as simple as possible. Although the library may give away such materials as pamphlets and leaflets in the first stages of the fundamental education programme, the practice of lending should begin as soon as possible.

Even though he must take essential precautions to ensure the care and return of library material, the librarian should not too strictly apply the rules about time limit and fines for overdue and damaged books. Rather he should encourage readers to return one book in order to enjoy the privilege of borrowing another. (See also *Library Regulation and Operation*, p. 129.)

As soon as the library undertakes any extension work, it must begin to keep simple but accurate records of the location of books sent out to deposit stations.

LIBRARY ACTIVITIES AND EXTENSION WORK

The activities of the library will be governed by factors and principles already mentioned. (See p. 129.)

The library has the two-fold task of serving both groups and individuals in the community.

Service to Groups

At the fundamental education stage, group service is the first and probably the less difficult undertaking. The librarian both chooses the material the groups need, and helps them use it. Contact with different groups in the community can be established and maintained by using the normal means of mass communication.

The librarian should take advantage of every opportunity to address any reputable group and to arrange exhibits and demonstrations related to the community's interests. For example, the library can sponsor discussion groups, handicraft displays, drawing competitions, film shows, theatrical performances, concerts, and other cultural and recreational activities. In many of these fields the people's own ability in art, drama and music should be appreciated and encouraged.

The special needs of certain groups such as teachers and schools, adolescents, workers' associations and co-operatives, religious groups, hospital and prison inmates, and the armed services should be recognized and provision made for them in the library's programme, as far as finances and resources permit. The library can also play a vital part in the adaptation of new immigrants to an alien environment and in bringing about their acceptance and understanding by the local community.

Service to Individuals

However, the librarian must not become pre-occupied with group work to the neglect of work with individuals. The librarian's task is both to stimulate and to satisfy his readers' needs by such means as personal advice and assistance in choosing materials.

Examples of fields in which he can help individuals are: easy books for new literates, elementary technical books, vocational guidance, books and pamphlets on hobbies and handicraft, or books leading to an interest in local, national and international affairs. (See also *Library Collections*, p. 120.)

Extension Services

It is not always possible for every member or group in a community to come to the library's headquarters. Library services should therefore reach out to serve people in the way that best suits their convenience. Even when the library is still part of the fundamental education programme, it can begin extension work.

Deposit Stations

In the first stages, this work will probably take the form of establishing deposit stations in schools, community centres, or any other suitable buildings in neighbouring communities; placing voluntary custodians in charge of them; and maintaining contact with them through regular exchanges of books and frequent visits of the librarian.

Such collections may consist of books, pamphlets and other material, and will probably be selected by the librarian at headquarters, packed in special boxes or cartons, and shipped by the usual local means of transport.

The material, as well as the containers, must be carefully selected to fit local conditions. For example, waterproof wrappings might be necessary in some climates, and special boxes which open to form shelves could be used for deposits where no shelving is available. (See also *Installation and Equipment of the Library*, p. 117.)

Deposits must be exchanged at regular and reasonably frequent intervals (for example, every three months), in order to ensure a fresh supply of material and to maintain readers' interest.

Mobile Service

As soon as conditions of geography, climate, population and finance permit, mobile library service is desirable. This method has great advantages over deposit stations in that it gives the service an active form. For instance, a bookvan or bookmobile is not merely a means of book transport but literally a "library on wheels". The bookmobile carries a wider selection of books and other materials than small deposit stations can provide, and, above all, it carries the librarian with his book knowledge and personal advice to readers. The bookmobile is also invaluable publicity, arousing and maintaining local interest wherever it travels.

The *type, size and equipment* of the bookmobile should be carefully considered in the light of the size of the area to be served, nature of the terrain, severity of the climate, seasonal differences, condition of the roads and bridges, and other local factors.

For example, a bookmobile with outside shelving is practical only in moderate climates where there are neither torrential rains, heavy snows nor high winds. If the terrain is rough, a small or medium bookmobile would be preferable to a larger and more cumbersome one. In certain circumstances, an automobile and trailer might be better than a single vehicle. For long journeys in remote areas, it might be

necessary to equip the bookmobile with sleeping accommodation and supplies of food and water for the staff.

When planning the equipment of the bookmobile, it is important to consider the types of material to be transported. If over-sized books, pamphlets, periodicals and audio-visual materials are to be carried, they will need special shelves and containers, so that the maximum amount of material can be carried with a minimum amount of damage in transit. Portable boxes or cartons are useful to supplement the shelving space and replenish the stock. The furniture should include display panels (possibly above the shelves or in unused corners) compact desk space, comfortable seats for the staff, folding chairs and tables, and at least one locked cupboard. Special attention should be paid to the lighting and heating of the bookmobile and to the possible need for such devices as loud speakers, electric generators on the motor, and special projection equipment for using audio-visual materials outdoors.

Because terms of measurement and cost vary so much from country to country and from time to time, it seems useless to give specification and prices in a report of this kind.

No bookmobile should ever be designed or purchased without the assistance and advice of professional literature on the subject, local automobile manufacturers, and especially other librarians who have used bookmobiles.

Consideration should be given to the questions of adapting other kinds of vehicles to bookmobile use, and to obtaining a vehicle that can be repaired and serviced locally. For instance, it would be most unwise to purchase a vehicle of foreign manufacture if spare parts were not easily obtainable within the country.

The frequency and duration of the bookmobile's visit to each community, and the length of its circuits, will again depend on local factors such as size and density of the communities and distances between them, the condition of the roads and the financial resources and staff of the library. Visits should be as frequent as possible. Where visits are frequent and regular, the bookmobile should visit the same community at the same hour on the same day of the week, and if possible should time its visit to fit in with community activities.

The staff of the bookmobile should always consist of at least two persons—the librarian and the driver—and more if the size of the bookmobile and the volume of service are great. To attempt to staff a bookmobile with only one librarian-driver is false economy, because the librarian who is pre-occupied with the tasks of driving

and servicing the vehicle, and wearied by his dual role and the lonely trips between communities, cannot give good book service to readers.

Another basic principle is to estimate the life of the vehicle and to begin immediately to budget for its replacement. Failure to consider this point at the outset may severely damage or even destroy the bookmobile service, when the vehicle wears out and there is no replacement fund apart from current revenue.

The general principles for any regional or national library scheme designed to promote the development of an under-developed region should take into consideration:

Public Library Legislation

In the matter of library organization, said Dr Ranganathan, "combination of impatience and inexperience is the greatest danger". This may be even more true when formation of library laws is concerned.

They should be enacted only as soon as a need for a library system is ascertained in the country. Local conditions should be thoroughly investigated in order that laws should meet the country's needs and possibilities. They should further conform to the national pattern of legislation. For example in a country of greatly centralized administration library laws should not tend too much towards decentralization and vice versa.

Though no general type of library legislation can cover the many local conditions encountered by librarians all the world over, some principles could however be regarded as a common goal:

(*a*) The library legislation must be both simple and general, that is to say, it should neither be too minute or specific nor too rigid in its regulations. It should allow for future development without giving opportunity for misinterpretation.

(*b*) It must as far as possible be kept above accidents of political changes.

(*c*) The law must make library services possible, encourage development and ensure that libraries shall be provided. It should not be merely a question of "permitting" and "auditing" but of creating conditions in which libraries can flourish.

(*d*) It should co-ordinate library activities and control them in full

recognition of the people's right to free access to the means of knowledge and factual information.

(*e*) Library legislation must also take into account different types of libraries in the same country.

It should fully cover the public libraries and include clauses relating to research and special libraries and their particular needs. With regard to public libraries the law should stipulate the duties and privileges of these libraries and, above all, the terms of financial assistance that they should receive from public authorities.

(*f*) The law must make clear the respective responsibilities of local, state or national administrations, official or private, as far as public libraries are concerned.

(*g*) The financial scheme must be drawn up in a flexible manner which would permit a certain amount of local variations.

(*h*) The law may provide either for state establishment of libraries or state aid when local governments are managing them. The service may be made compulsory whenever the conditions of communities are favourable, e.g., adequate finance, sufficient degree of literacy, availability of trained staff, suitable collections, etc.

Granting these conditions it should be prescribed, however, that every locality (urban district or rural region) should provide and maintain a public library, just as it maintains an elementary school or any other service. But the application of compulsion must be closely related to the financial resources of the district.

(*i*) The law must prescribe that public libraries should be free and accessible to all categories of people by putting at their disposal books and other material fit to maintain and advance the general level of public education, academic as well as material. The law should also provide for public library resources to be supplemented by those of specialized and scientific libraries which should in return receive assistance from public funds.

(*j*) All libraries should lend their books free of charge to all citizens in the country in accordance with an approved scheme for co-operation between libraries.

(*k*) The books in stock should cover every opinion: not only should literary and professional interests be taken into account, but also all political and religious opinions. The only censorship should apply to the type of books which would incite to crime and violence.

The law should also include provision for the establishment of libraries for children, and schools, for the sick, and aged, for the defence services, and merchant marine, etc.

The library act should allocate different tasks to different types of libraries in order to ensure more economical administration, rationalization of methods, specialization in subject fields, and altogether a better service to the community as a whole.

Grants

All this presupposes substantial grants to public libraries from public funds.

It may be feared that state aid brings in state control which will interfere with the libraries' freedom. In a democratic country, however, with a well-planned system of social services, such laws and regulations would help and stimulate library activities rather than restrict. They should be flexible and give ample freedom and maximum scope to local library authorities to do their share of the work.

Grants to local library authorities will have three purposes:

(*a*) To enable them to achieve the approved standards of library service.

(*b*) To stimulate continuous development.

(*c*) To justify the state agency's having a share and a voice in library affairs.

The relation between central grants and local expenditure must vary, with regard to the different formulae by which local taxes are raised.

It is generally true that country districts are less capable than urban areas of financing libraries: the less densely populated an area, the greater the disability. It costs more to provide good libraries when service points are small and scattered. So the grants in every country must be varied according to the type of local authority, not losing sight of the fact that in under-developed areas the poorer the community the more generous should be the help.

Excessive difference or disparity between the assistance given to rural areas and large cities is to be avoided, not only because apparent inequity may be resented, but also because all elements in a co-ordinated state-wide service should feel that they are equal partners with both benefits and responsibilities.

State grants to libraries imply that the state should impose conditions—with regard to the performance of certain duties, the maintenance of standards, the employment of staff receiving reasonable salaries fixed by the state, hours of opening, inspection, etc., all of which amount to a good measure of state supervision.

Before making a grant, however, the state may demand a minimum contribution from local authorities based upon population.

A local library's estimate of the grant it requires may be based on the statistics for the reading population or potential readers.

The law should provide for co-operation between public libraries and libraries maintained by non-official bodies and private institutions. Such bodies may be given some financial and advisory assistance by the state on condition that they come into the general pattern of a national library scheme.

University libraries, special libraries and library associations can co-operate very fruitfully with the public libraries.

Establishment of a Central Library Administration

(*a*) The library legislation should provide for the establishment of a central library administration to carry out the law.

The central library administration should be attached to a government department possessing prestige, stability, substantial financial means and a progressive spirit. It may be desirable, for example, to attach the library administration to the ministry of education or social welfare. When it is not a part of a ministry, it may be attached to a university or a national central library, though this is not regarded as ideal.

The central library administration must have a director of public libraries as its head, with responsibility to the government.

(*b*) The law should provide for the constitution and establishment of committees at various levels—geographical as well as functional—and define the functions of the state or national library authority, its relation to local authorities and relations between the local library authorities.

The committees should represent all shades of opinion. There may be state, regional and local committees, as well as committees for special functions to be determined by general committees.

It is desirable that the members of the committees should represent the state government, local governments, library associations, universities and the public.

The committees may be executive, reporting or recommending. The first two should be preferred and provided for in law; they should be given freedom to administer and manage libraries in their own areas, subject to the provisions of the law and responsibility to it.

The state library committee will advise the government on all matters relating to libraries in the entire state.

(*c*) The functions of a central library administration vary from country to country and depend upon the degree of decentralization. It should:

(1) See that the provisions of the act are carried out by the local library authorities.

(2) Supervise and inspect the libraries periodically to give necessary guidance (supervisors and inspectors should be experienced professional librarians and there should be a sufficient number to insure frequent inspections).

(3) Provide machinery for advising and assisting individual libraries and librarians on all problems.

(4) Fix certain minimum standards with regard to book provision, competency of staff and their qualifications, appointments, salaries and conditions of service including pension, security of job, etc.

(5) Organize and direct co-ordinated national library system throughout the country and provide for free circulation of educational materials of every kind, i.e., organizing inter-library loans, etc. The university and special libraries may also be brought into the co-ordinated scheme.

(6) Organize international library loans through a central agency.

(7) Provide some of the service agencies from which books are supplied to local service points and also provide certain centralized services for library authorities responsible for the normal administration of their own libraries. Insist on adequate standards and provide grants-in-kind, for example, loan or hire of books or staff, centralized cataloguing, book purchasing, etc.

(8) Stimulate library extension by helping and encouraging local authorities, conducting campaigns, etc.

(9) Study library problems, conduct research, collect information and make it available, publish material relating to library development, e.g., booklists, bibliographies, text-books for the staff, publicity material and so on.

(10) Support or assist demonstration schemes and provide facilities for professional training.

(11) Establish a special bureau to co-ordinate the work of the library authorities by fixing targets of library development.

(12) Establish national book centres able to deal with exchanges

and distribution of duplicates, both to libraries within the country and elsewhere.

(13) Centralize book purchase as far as possible and centralize cataloguing and administration.

Regulation of Professional Training

The law should provide for the regulation of the professional training of librarians. It may be given in a university, a special school, or a commercial or technical college.

It is better that future librarians should be university graduates before undergoing a course of instruction.

Education in librarianship may also take the form of summer-schools, seminars, foreign fellowships, etc., for which the central library administration should take some responsibility.

MEANS OF ENSURING STABILITY AND CONTINUITY OF LIBRARY SERVICE

Attention should be given to the following points:

(*a*) Before a library is established in an under-developed area, a stable source of income should be secured.

(*b*) Adequate arrangements should be made to ensure that the service provided is not interrupted or discontinued. A fair proportion of the staff should be trained sufficiently early to enable a high standard of service to be kept up during long absence of personnel or vacancies in the staff.

(*c*) Library activities should be integrated with community needs and the social, economic and industrial projects of the country. The library should provide a service that always keeps sufficiently ahead of the development of the community without losing sight of it.

(*d*) An adequate collection of reading material, and such audio-visual aids as may be obtained, should be available and this collection should always be kept up to date.

(*e*) A professional librarian should be in charge and the staff should be progressively increased as the activities of the library expand. The librarian should provide inspiring and informed leadership to his staff.

(*f*) Efficient and progressive methods in fundamental and adult education and in library techniques should be adopted with necessary modifications to suit local conditions. No changes

in library methods should be made without professional advice.

(*g*) The activities of the library as well as the attitude of the staff should inspire confidence among the local population by maintaining perfect impartiality in political and religious controversies, by respecting the customs, traditions and culture of the people and through a high standard of service maintained without interruption.

(*h*) Interest in the library should be aroused and maintained by means of suitable and continual publicity. Efforts should be made to enlist in particular the help of the press and radio, officials and cultural bodies.

(*i*) The library should work in co-operation with other libraries and strive to unite them into a regional or national system.

(*j*) Suitable library legislation will be of inestimable help in providing and maintaining a good library service and is a necessary condition of future development.

(*k*) A library association should be formed as soon as there is a sufficient number of professional librarians to enable this to be done with advantage.

THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF GROUP III

The members of Group III recommend:

(1) That Unesco's fundamental education preliminary surveys and missions should not be launched without the services of a professional librarian who should remain until sufficient professional staff has been trained to carry on and supervise the newly formed libraries.

(2) That a course on library establishment, operation and development should be included in courses organized in fundamental education centres for the training of international experts.

(3) That, as a follow-up to the present Seminar, international regional conferences of a limited number of experts should be promoted at intervals, in order to discuss specific topics such as:
Linguistic problems in fundamental education libraries, and libraries in multi-lingual areas;
Methods for organizing library campaigns;
Rural library service in fundamental education areas;
Special training for fundamental education library service;
Problems of library co-operation.

(4) That Unesco should promote in consultation with librarians the

making and publication of every type of educational material, particularly simple reading-matter for adults, both in local and in official languages.

(5) That a practical text-book on the making and use of educational materials at the fundamental education level, should be edited in co-operation with a library specialist. It should include such topics as simple recording, the making and use of slides and film strips, the use of museographic techniques and characteristics. and the choice and publication of typical adapted reading matter

(6) That Unesco should recommend the inclusion of professional librarians in the National Commision of each Member State.

CHAPTER XV

CENTRALIZED SERVICES IN UNDER-DEVELOPED REGIONS

Working Paper prepared by
BODIL NORMANN [1]

COUNTRIES FACING THE PROBLEM of establishing library services have the advantage over countries with developed activities in that they are able to profit by the experiences of the latter and thereby avoid many mistakes. Such countries have the opportunity to create the best framework for an ideal organization, and this is especially true with regard to centralized services. By centralized services we primarily mean centralization of the technical work which can be done most advantageously in common for all libraries, for instance, classification and cataloguing (including printed cards), binding, publication of books on library science, printing of library forms, etc. In under-developed countries centralization of these tasks is especially important, as it would be difficult, if not impossible, to train as many librarians as would be required if the problems were to be solved locally, while it is always possible to get the few experts necessary for centralized operations.

Centralized services may be organized in different ways in connexion with a big library or through a central body established for the purpose. The latter solution is no doubt the better because it would not be wise, if only for psychological reasons, to let one library exercise too much control.

In Denmark, centralization of technical work was begun some 10 years ago in the so-called "Folkebibliotekernes bibliografiske Kontor" (Bibliographical Office of Public Libraries). Although this institution will be referred to in detail rather often, that does not mean that its way is the *only* right way, it is merely an indication of how centralized work can be done.

CATALOGUING

The first problem solved by the Bibliographical Office of Public Libraries was centralization of cataloguing. Until then cataloguers

1. Chief Librarian, Folkebibliotekernes bibliografiske Kontor, Copenhagen.

in individual libraries had separately spent many costly hours in cataloguing the same books and writing the same cards for the same public. Often, the same book was catalogued in different ways and was not put into the same place in the classification system. Centralized cataloguing (with printed cards) means perfect uniformity: the same book will always appear under the same entry and with the same classification number in each library. Naturally, not all cataloguers will agree on the decisions taken on the grouping or the choice of subject, but the cataloguing done by such a central agency will on the whole be excellent, as the staff will quickly acquire proficiency.

Centralized cataloguing saves the money and time of the individual library. Usually, cataloguing can and *ought* to be carried out in connexion with the national bibliography. Folkebibliotekernes bibliografiske Kontor receives daily information from the publishers regarding new publications to be listed in the national book-index. On the basis of this information, the office requests from the publishers sample copies of those books judged to be of interest to public libraries. The books are contributed by the publishers, and difficulties in obtaining books are seldom experienced. As soon as the books are received, they are catalogued, and about four weeks after publication printed cards for them are available.

PRINTED CARDS

The libraries are kept up to date on these cards by subscribing to a list of slips that is sent out once a week or once a fortnight. Each slip in this list is a true copy of the corresponding printed card, which contains bibliographical information, suggestions for additional cards and an order number. The cards can be bought in as many copies as required. Only unit cards are produced. By adding some typewritten words any library may issue as many of the suggested supplementary cards as they desire.

STANDARD CATALOGUES

The printed cards have met with great success, and this naturally has led to centralization of the publication of printed catalogues. They had formerly been published by different agencies, and this practice frequently resulted in discrepancies in the grouping of books and in the entries themselves, as had happened in the case of the printed cards. Such discrepancies can be avoided by using the printed

cards instead of manuscript copy when the catalogues are being prepared for printing. Furthermore, it is a great advantage to have this card-manuscript on file when you are preparing a new edition of a catalogue, as many titles will recur. It is obvious that most libraries, even small parish-libraries, would prefer an individual catalogue, but for most of them it is too expensive. The solution is standard-catalogues compiled to meet different library needs—for instance, catalogues for children, for young people, for small libraries, for large libraries. Besides these, a bibliographical bureau should provide standard-catalogues of periodicals and reference books, and catalogues for different subjects such as art, education, economics and so on. In addition, it should provide short annotated booklists or folders. All these catalogues and folders can be produced at a very low cost as they can be printed in large editions.

OTHER LIBRARY PUBLICATIONS

A bibliographical office should also publish material on library science. Folkebibliotekernes bibliografiske Kontor has, among other things, published manuals on library economy, books on extension work, library buildings, cataloguing rules, rules of alphabetical sequence, lists of subject headings, etc. In fact these books are not only *published* by the office but prepared as well. This results in uniformity in the most important publications and the smallest folders.

Special tasks which naturally might be carried out by a bibliographical centre would be the publication of newspaper and periodical indexes. Of course, only the most essential articles should be indexed, for instance, articles of a cultural, historical, biographical or technical nature, and reviews of books, films, and theatre performances. The most practical arrangement of the entries would probably be in accordance with the classification system in the country concerned, with an alphabetical index.

LIBRARY EQUIPMENT AND FORMS

Another task to be done centrally is the printing of library forms, book-cards, date slips, overdue notices, accession registers, ledgers, etc. It should also be possible to buy book-ends, daters, catalogue cases, book trucks, book-cases, in fact anything used in the daily work. All these items—printed matter, equipment and furniture—should be standardized by experienced librarians.

In Denmark, a committee decides immediately after the publication of a book whether or not it is to be purchased by all libraries. If so, it is at once ordered. It can then be delivered bound to the libraries about one month after publication. In co-operative binding, one can rationalize the work by dividing the books into groups according to weight and quality of paper so that the individual book will get the binding that suits it, and the cost will go down if a sufficent number of books can be dealt with simultaneously. Co-operative binding will consequently mean not only quick delivery, but good, inexpensive binding. This practice saves a lot of time and money for individual libraries. In Denmark the publishers send the required number of copies of each title to the book-binder. When the title in question is delivered to the different libraries, Folkebibliotekernes bibliografiske Kontor sends the publisher a statement listing the libraries which have bought copies and the book-sellers through whom they were ordered. Every purchase must pass through the book-sellers according to the organization of the Danish book-market. Consequently payment for the *books* themselves is settled between book-sellers and publishers, while payment for the *covers* is settled between Folkebibliotekernes bibliografiske Kontor and the libraries. This procedure is complicated, though unavoidable because of the set-up in Denmark.

"NUCLEUS" LIBRARIES

In under-developed countries, "nucleus" libraries would be a great help in establishing library services. A "nucleus" library should contain a small collection of books selected by experts. It should be delivered complete, with the books bound and equipment ready for immediate use. In Denmark, these "nucleus" libraries are financed by a book-seller. The sale of the libraries is carried out by Folkebibliotekernes bibliografiske Kontor, which receives a certain amount per library for the technical work done, but payment for the books themselves is made to the booksellers by authorities purchasing the libraries. The price is fixed and can be paid in instalments over a period of five years.

A bibliographical centre should be able to help libraries in procuring books written in foreign languages. For this service, a union catalogue of accessions of all the country's special and research libraries is necessary. The office must also possess a comprehensive collection of national and foreign bibliographies to render a wide and extensive service. Such bibliographies are indispensable in the cataloguing department as well.

There are undoubtedly many other tasks that might be carried out co-operatively and more will appear in the future as the library movement grows.

You might ask how to start such a bibliographical bureau and how to provide the necessary money. May I be allowed again to take the Danish bibliographical office as an illustration: Folkebibliotekernes bibliografiske Kontor is a self-supporting non-profit-making body, which receives a yearly grant from the so-called "sum at the disposal of the ministry". This sum becomes available by reducing the basic government grants to all public libraries by 2 ½ per cent and it must be used for the benefit of all the libraries. On the board of the office are representatives from the State Inspectorate of Public Libraries, from the Ministry of Education and from the Library Association. In the first year, the whole budget was about 20,000 kr. This sum was given as a grant from the State; now, 11 years later, the budget is about half a million. It has thus increased more than 20 times, while the grant from the State has increased only from 20,000 to 36,000 kr. Consequently the prices fixed for publications, printed cards, etc., must include some profit for the operating expenses.

The centralized services might be organized in other and possibly better ways. The best solution in another country might be to have the office operated and financed by the State. Or it might be a co-operative undertaking belonging to the libraries, each of which would pay according to the size of its budget.

The main thing is to get a central office started somehow. Up to now, centralized services have been established in only a few countries, but the experiences of these countries have made it quite clear how valuable such services are: they save much time and money; they guarantee the quality of the technical work; they secure uniformity. In countries that have a well-developed library system, it may be difficult to change. Under-developed regions, on the other hand, are offered the opportunity of building the right system from the very beginning.

PART FIVE

EVALUATION

Some librarians try hard to be good custodians of books; a few of them unfortunately succeed. —A participant.

CHAPTER XVI

THE EVALUATION OF THE SEMINAR

WHEN A SEMINAR is over, there is always the question how good it has been. When the members of the group leave, never to be reassembled, when the spirit and the harmony of a small but united community disappear, when the congratulatory speeches and letters to the staff and fellow participants die away, what values remain? Has it all been worth while? The participants may have had a fine experience in group living and they may have grown to some extent as individuals, but so costly an enterprise as an international seminar should lead to something more. It is appropriate to expect in the case of the present Seminar that there should be substantial improvement in the library services provided to the people of the world by the participants themselves and by those whom they influence.

The objectives of the Seminar were:

To contribute to the total knowledge of librarianship by giving experts from many nations and many different kinds of libraries the opportunity to define those topics or questions which are now most crucial in library adult education and to examine them in the light of the experience and judgment of the group.

To give individual participants aid in planning the improvement of library adult education in their own communities or countries.

To give a group of professionally competent people the experience of working together productively in an international setting.

To give the participants the opportunity to understand the goals and programme of Unesco, to the end that they will support its activities and extend its influence.

To what extent were these goals reached?

Initial evidence concerning the accomplishment of the first objective is presented in this report, and the reader may judge its excellence for himself. Additional evidence will accumulate, particularly during the next two years, as members of the Seminar publish

the results of inquiries undertaken or initiated in Malmö.

Only the experience of future years can demonstrate whether the second and fourth objectives have been achieved in any ultimate sense. In order to have some idea of what has been accomplished, however, the participants chose a Committee on Evaluation which will make an inquiry nine months after the Seminar is over to discover what evidences of its influence have by then appeared.

Some judgment may, however, be given concerning the third objective, for the close of the Seminar itself is the time to inquire into the character of the experience which has been provided. Three separate evaluative approaches were made.

First, the Committee on Evaluation devised and administered a questionnaire during the last two days of the period and, in addition, interviewed a number of the individual participants.

Second, Mr. Petersen, of the Unesco Secretariat, held a separate interview with each participant during the closing days of the Seminar and, among other things, asked each to give a judgment of its effectiveness. These interviews revealed that only one participant felt that she had not been substantially helped by the Seminar.

Third, the director instituted his own lines of inquiry. He asked the participants to provide him with certain data. He talked with many participants and all staff members. The other group leaders gave him statements of their own opinion. An evaluation staff meeting was held. Mr. Petersen generalized and reported the judgments given him by the participants in the series of interviews. All this information and opinion has been used, although the Director is entirely responsible for the views expressed.

THE SEMINAR TECHNIQUE

The international seminar has come of age. When Unesco first began to experiment with this technique in 1947, there were reasonable doubts as to its value and marked uncertainty about the structure and methods which would be most useful. The members of the early seminars were very conscious of their role as pioneers and experimenters. As seminar has succeeded seminar, the doubts have decreased and the confidence in certain tested procedures has grown.

The Malmö Seminar profited greatly from the experience of past seminars; it should be expected, therefore, to reach a higher level of attainment then was possible for them. There is, as well, an obligation for those who report on this Seminar to be candid concerning its

merits and faults so that the planners of later activities of the same sort may have confidence in paralleling the former and caution in avoiding the latter.

A seminar would be a failure if its complete worth could be assessed on its final day. The goals are primarily educational in character, and it is impossible to hurry an educational process or to appraise its total effect upon an individual or a society. Much of the best learning takes place after the participants have returned home as they think over their experience and examine their activities in the light of new insights which they have acquired. The more tangible results—published papers, improved services, and the accomplishment of new and broader goals—also take time. It is fair to assume, however, that there is a positive correlation between such lasting results and the quality of the seminar experience. If the participants have been well chosen, the advance planning effective, the spirit and morale high, the activities pursued with vigour and interest, and the physical and administrative arrangements satisfactory, it appears probable that the prognosis of future accomplishment is good. It is for this reason that such matters are here examined in considerable detail and with as much objectiveness as is possible to one who was closely associated with the planning and conduct of the Seminar.

THE ADVANCE PLANNING OF THE SEMINAR

One of the most important lessons learned from earlier seminars was that advance planning is of the greatest importance and that adequate time should be allowed for it. As a result, the planning for the Malmö Seminar was started long before its opening date. The Unesco Secretariat deserves warm congratulation for achieving the impressive record of advance planning which has been described in Chapter II.

It is regrettable that more of the National Commissions and their secretariats have not learned this same lesson. Despite the ample and detailed advance notice of the Seminar sent to all Member States, some of the national authorities delayed so long in selecting their representatives that the staff had to do its last-minute planning in ignorance of the names, positions, and interests of a substantial number of the participants.

Each participant whose name was known to Unesco in advance of the opening of the Seminar was sent a brief statement about its work and a questionnaire on which he might indicate his own interests. When he registered at the Seminar, he was given a packet containing

a large quantity of materials, including the working papers and a number of items descriptive of the possible procedures to be followed and the resources available. Some of the participants later expressed the wish that these documents might have been distributed by mail in advance of the Seminar.

It is hard to see how this course could have been followed, even if all of the names and addresses had been known. The final integration of plans and working out of details could not take place until the staff was assembled in Malmö and could engage in a discussion of possibilities and an examination of potential resources. It would have been expensive and inconvenient in the extreme to have assembled the staff members from their homes half-way around the world for an earlier conference.

The experience at certain earlier seminars makes it reasonable to doubt whether the advance mailing would have been worth while. Masses of material arriving in the busy days before one leaves one's home and job for a month to six weeks are not likely to be read very carefully. Furthermore such material, in the absence of a direct and personal overview and introduction of it, often gives rise to misconceptions and lack of understanding that survive despite anything which may be said or decided at the seminar itself. There is a tendency to regard suggestions as directives, and possible lines of activity as mandatory requirements. As a result, there is conveyed an impression of over-planning which may inhibit the participant's sense of freedem to decide, or cause him to react violently against what he regards as a betrayal of the fundamental principle that a seminar should be a group-directed activity.

THE SELECTION OF THE PARTICIPANTS

The description of the participants presented in Chapter II has indicated their chief characteristic: a very great diversity of background, training and responsibility. Since the major idea of a seminar, particularly an international one, is to bring about a better understanding of professional problems through pooling experiences, diversity is an important asset as long as there is some basis for a common approach.

The diversities already described proved to be assets rather than liabilities, but there was one additional aspect about which some question may be raised. The participants might be roughly classified into three groups : recognized leaders from countries with good library

service; persons of ability and promise but, as yet, of only modest stature in such countries; and recognized leaders from countries with relatively poor library service. There is no doubt that persons in the two latter categories received a powerful professional stimulation from the Seminar, but it may be wondered whether there was adequate stimulation for persons in the first category. In the course of their careers, they have progressed beyond the problems with which their juniors must still be pre-occupied, and are concerned with matters of broader or deeper import. One such person said frankly that he could not rate the Seminar as more than a moderate success because he had not found there that contact with the leading library authorities of other countries which he had hoped to have. There was some such contact but he thought not enough.

The talent for leadership which has brought these persons to their present eminent positions soon made itself evident in the Seminar, as they were chosen by their colleagues to undertake various important responsibilities. All of them were strongly disposed to be helpful and their seasoned and practical judgment was one of the greatest resources which the Seminar possessed. Some of them doubtless regained a freshness of approach as they worked with colleagues who are still concerned with direct and fundamental services rather than with questions of supervision, administration and broad strategy. But did they gain enough to make their attendance worth while?

It is easy to state this difficulty but it is impossible to suggest any certain course of action by which it may be avoided by later seminars. The designation of the persons to come is, as it should be, the responsibility of the National Commissions. Unesco can define the kinds of persons who, it thinks, will profit most from the seminar—indeed it did so in the present case—but the National Commissions must make the final selection. It might be thought that the problem would be solved if separate seminars were held for the persons in each of the three categories, but a flood of objections to such a proposal comes immediately to mind: how can the persons be designated for the several seminars without arousing ill-feeling and without the invasion by the Unesco Secretariat of the fundamental rights of the National Commissions; would not such seminars be too homogeneous and lacking in that diversity which was so attractive at Malmö; and would not the learning experience for junior personnel be deprived of much of its value and interest if there were not a seasoning of persons with a broader range of background and insight?

Perhaps the best hope would be to plan the basic structure of future seminars with varying levels of experience in mind. The senior

group could then form a separate body for part of the deliberations. It would obviously be essential to make the differentiation not on the basis of prestige but on the basis of a different level of problems, and permit the individual participants, with advice, to make their own decisions about whether they would belong to it or to another group.

Wherever possible, the National Commissions should recruit and select the participants rather than ask them to apply for membership. The former process is far more likely to insure the designation of the ablest people in a country, who might not be willing to apply but who would esteem it an honour to be chosen. Some National Commissions may not feel that they should recruit participants, particularly if they cannot provide travel expenses or if the process of screening would be difficult or embarrassing. This is understandable but it may mean that the resulting seminar is less effective than it otherwise would be.

THE PREVAILING SPIRIT

In any group of people who are drawn together for a common purpose, to be accomplished in a limited time, a particular group spirit grows up. The influence of this spirit on the individual is one of the most important factors in accomplishing the process of growth which may occur during the course of the association.

It is very satisfying to report, therefore, that the group of people who were present at the Malmö Seminar soon became a real community. Before long there was that kind of savouring of individualities and differences and enjoyment of private anecdote which means that integration has taken place. As in any community, there were groups with congenial interests. There were individuals who remained somewhat more solitary than the others, because of shyness, language difficulty, or a liking for isolation. There were popular people, and there were those who were not well liked. It is very important to record the fact, however, that any differences and antagonisms were viewed completely on a personal and not on a national, race or religious basis. In every situation, the community spirit and the awareness of the need for its preservation, was strong enough to override all difference and all difficulty.

The planned tours and recreational programme had much to do with the development of this happy spirit. Equally important was the fact that in the middle of the Seminar period there was a week-end recess during which the participants could do anything they chose.

Certain minor tensions were thereby dissipated and the group returned to its work with an enthusiasm heightened both by the relaxation and by the feeling of having had fun together.

THE USE OF CO-OPERATIVE PLANNING

During the first three days of the Seminar, the load of administration was carried or directed entirely by the staff. After that it shifted gradually, so that by the end of the first week, all planning was being done co-operatively by the group or by committees which it had selected. Everybody, staff and participants alike, began to take it for granted that responsibility for making decisions and carrying them out would be shared by all concerned. Since this fact was accepted, there seemed to be no point in constantly examining it. For some of the persons concerned, group decision and action was a little strange at first and more than one person took the Director aside during the latter part of the first week and told him he was shirking his job in not directing things more. This transitional phase passed quickly; the sense of awkwardness disappeared when the problems to be considered became more concrete, and presently it seemed the natural order of affairs to work collaboratively.

It was only at the end, which is always a time of appraisal, that the members of the group, looking back upon what they had done, came to appreciate fully the method they had used. In the last three days, virtually every participant made a little speech to one of the staff members, saying how greatly he had valued the opportunity to plan and work with others.

THE SPREAD OF LEADERSHIP

Just as the Seminar gave all of its participants the experience of group planning, so did it give them the opportunity of exerting leadership of both a formal and informal sort.

It is possible to report on the formal leadership with some exactness. On the fourth day, the participants selected a steering committee to represent them in the direction of all Seminar affairs. This committee then chose five others charged with specific responsibilities for providing editorial service, planning trips and recreation, arranging exhibits, making an evaluation, and conducting the Copenhagen tour. The steering committee also selected presiding officers for all

the general sessions. The three basic groups of the seminar set up their own committees and established their own responsibilities.

If one adds up these several opportunities for formal leadership, they make an impressive total. Thirty-seven persons contributed distinctive service to the entire seminar, six of them serving as chairmen of all-seminar committees, 18 as members of all-seminar committees, and 13 as presiding officers at general sessions. Twenty-seven contributed distinctive service to a group, three of them serving as chairmen of steering or reporting committees, 22 as chairmen of committees to consider special topics, and two as authors of special reports. Since some persons discharged more than one of these responsibilities, there were 12 participants who were not given some opportunity of formal leadership. Of these, five had fairly serious language handicaps, and four were at the Seminar for less than the entire period. The remaining three were somehow overlooked.

It is also possible to provide some evidence concerning the operation of informal leadership within the group. The Director of the Seminar hoped to make a sóciogram of the group's relationships and therefore asked the participants to answer the following question: "Which participants (not staff members) have provided the greatest stimulation and contribution to the work of the Seminar? List as many names as you wish but try to be discriminative." Though the question was presented to the group only after advance consultation with individual participants had made it appear that it would be well received, and though the secrecy of the results was assured, only 23 participants were willing to provide answers. Some of the others were quite sincerely shocked that the question had been asked, and others thought it indiscreet to answer.

The data, although partial, are interesting. Thirty different people were named, a surprisingly large total particularly in view of the limited number of respondents. The votes were distributed as follows:

Number of votes	Number of persons
14	1
11	2
9	1
7	1
6	2
5	3
4	5
3	5
2	1
1	9

It is apparent, even from these limited data, that the spread of informal leadership in the Seminar was very broad.

THE DISCUSSION PROCESS

One early impediment to the Seminar was the fact that so many of the participants came from countries which are not familiar with the process of directed group discussion. It was a distinct effort for these participants to express their views and to share in the give and take of fact and opinion. Their colleagues with more experience of this kind of activity quickly sensed the difficulty and made the road to full participation as easy for them as possible. Gradually the shift occurred. Some who still felt inhibited about talking in a large group learned to express themselves freely in a smaller one. Eventually everyone was drawn in, although the effort continued to be harder for those with language handicaps than for the others.

One measure of the eventual freedom of the discussion was the willingness of the great majority of the participants to discuss the problems and shortcomings of their own countries and of their library systems. At the very beginning, there were a few evidences of defensiveness, but as the participants became aware that their own problems were almost never unique, there grew up that attitude of objectivity which is necessary before fruitful analysis can take place.

Another measure of the success of the discussion was the fact that the interpreters, who at first held closely to their role of technicians and facilitators, became interested in the subject matter itself. In one group, the interpreter, after obviously restraining himself for some time, finally asked with diffidence whether he might express his own view on a particular point. The group enthusiastically assented. His view was one which aroused a strong reaction, so that he was then under the necessity of translating all the speeches opposing his own idea. This process, incidentally, did not cause him to change his mind.

Many people feel that group discussion is one of the most important parts of a library's programme of adult education. It may well be concluded therefore that a significant outcome of the Seminar was the practical experience in the discussion method which it gave to this group of influential librarians.

Most of the work of the Seminar took place in the three major groups. This arrangement made it possible for a relatively small group of people to dig deep into a subject, thereby gaining a sense of accomplishment themselves and making their collective judgment more significant for others. A less fortunate consequence was that the working contacts remained somewhat narrow, particularly since the discreteness of the three group topics meant that little inter-communication could be arranged despite the best efforts of both staff and participants to do so.

There were ample social contacts. Most of the members of the Seminar sought to become acquainted with everyone else. There were many *ad hoc* meetings, the membership of which cut across that of the groups. The periodic and final reports made it possible for everyone at the Seminar to know what each group was doing. But there can be no doubt that the range of continuous and effective working contact was limited by the membership of groups.

In view of the objectives of the Seminar and the nature of the problems which the three groups discussed, it is hard to see how this basic condition could have been altered. If less emphasis had been placed on the results to be expected from pooled expert judgment, if the problems had been more inter-related, or, possibly, if the Seminar had been longer, a greater working interaction might have taken place. The only other possibility, to ask the participants to work harder and take on additional assignments, was clearly out of the question. As it was, many of them worked so hard that there was real danger that their judgment might be dulled by fatigue.

THE USE OF THE TWO LANGUAGES

What appeared at the start of the Seminar to be the greatest obstacle to its smooth operation came to seem one of its real advantages. The necessity to do everything simultaneously in two languages appeared to be a great waste of time; one participant said that he thought the result would be a two-week seminar spread over four weeks. As it turned out, the use of the two languages had some striking advantages, particularly in the discussions. It was a constant symbol of diversity and kept participants reminded of the very real differences in their situations from country to country. The pause for translation gave participants time to reflect and collect their thoughts.

The search for words which would have clarity of meaning in both languages often meant that the speaker gained greater precision in expressing his ideas. An early impatience at the use of two languages gave way to tolerance and finally to an air almost of enjoyment as people seemed to savour the difference in languages.

The French-speaking participants were particularly concerned about the exact meaning of crucial terms and were eager to discover the equivalents, in their own language, of certain English expressions. A French-speaking staff member therefore held a special meeting at which these terms and expressions were analysed and defined. By this means, communication was greatly facilitated.

More ingenuity might have been used in speeding up the translation in the plenary sessions. A microphone and loudspeaker were available and could have been used to provide a primitive form of simultaneous translation. If this proved unsatisfactory, the French, and English-speaking groups could have been separated and a schedule worked out so that an address could be translated in one room while a second one was being delivered in the other, both groups later being assembled for group discussion. (This latter device was used to advantage in the final reporting sessions but it would have been particularly helpful the first week when most of the plenary sessions were held.) Finally, no useful purpose is served by asking those who speak one language to sit dully by while a speech of which they have an abstract in their own language is being delivered in another one.

THE LOCATION AND PHYSICAL ARRANGEMENTS

There are various schools of thought concerning the proper physical location of a seminar. Some people believe that it should be held in seclusion in a beautiful place, where people may concentrate with elevation of spirit on the problem at hand. Others think that a seminar should be placed in or near a great cultural centre, where it can receive outside stimulation and draw upon vast resources. But those who were in Malmö will speak for a location which has a balance of values. Malmö is a small city, rather quiet in the summer, which provided some variety of outside amusement but not undue distraction. There were vast resources in Copenhagen and Stockholm which could be used as required, and there was also a model library small enough to comprehend and emulate. Since the participants were housed in a number of different places, they had a constant sense

of community. Some of the hotel rooms left something to be desired, but if there were any other drawbacks, four weeks was not a long enough period to make them evident.

The formal name of the Seminar must doubtless be used in all official documents. To those who were present, it will always be known as the "Malmö Seminar". This name is used not only because it is convenient and short but because of the fondness which everyone gained for the beautiful city in which the Seminar was held, and the kindness and courtesy of its people. To the participants, Malmö soon became a home away from home, and there was nobody present at the Seminar who did not speak of its charm and beauty.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE ARRANGEMENTS

The work of the Seminar was facilitated at every step by completely adequate administrative arrangements. Throughout the entire period of the planning and conduct of the Seminar, the countless problems were either foreseen and prevented or handled with dispatch once they did appear. The Unesco Secretariat and the staff of the Stadsbibliotek had full responsibility for the arrangements and both handled all matters, from major policy to detail, with speed and competence. There was an able and well-equipped office staff, directed by an extraordinarily capable manager. The interpretation and translation services were excellent.

It was possible from the beginning for the staff and participants to concentrate on the real work of the Seminar.

THE LENGTH OF THE SEMINAR

It was the fashion at the Seminar to wail about the shortness of time. Almost everybody at one period or other made a kind of ritualistic speech about the pressure of events, the briefness of the Seminar and the great desirability of at least t wo more weeks of joint activity. This feeling was most often expressed, naturally enough, at the end, when the happy association of the past month was about to cease, and the review of actual accomplishments showed it to be somewhat less than the idealistic hopes of the first week.

It is true that if a longer seminar had been planned, its range of, subject-matter and its pace would have been different, and therefore more might have been accomplished. But, within the framework

which was set, the staff believes that the Seminar was long enough. Everybody left wishing that he did not need to do so. If the participants had stayed even another week, many of them would probably have been glad to get away. They had had an experience of high and sustained quality. It is well that they could hold that picture in their minds.

THE NATIONAL REPORTS

Each participant was requested to bring with him to the Seminar a brief report of library adult education in his own country. Some of these reports were available at the beginning of the Seminar and others were written during it. It is possible that these reports may be valuable for later analysis and publication, but it is doubtful whether their use during the Seminar itself was sufficient to warrant the time spent in preparing and editing them.

THE OVER-ALL DIRECTION

One could scarcely expect the Director of a Seminar to be objective in appraising his own activity; its quality must be evaluated by others. In the interest of later seminars, however, it is important that one point be explored.

Because of a certain series of events, too involved and unimportant to record here, the Director of the Malmö Seminar was also the leader of the largest group. It is likely that, as a result of this dual responsibility, both parts of his work were less well performed than they should have been.

A Director who is relieved of administrative routine should undertake the leadership of a group, since he will then have a more direct insight into the affairs of the Seminar; it is likely, too, that if he does not have a group to lead, his full time cannot be usefully employed as Director. It is important, however, that he assign himself the leadership of a group which, because of its smallness, the relative simplicity of its topic, or the presence of an able assistant leader, will not occupy an unduly large part of his time.

The chief responsibility for keeping alive the value of the Seminar rests with the individual participants; indeed if they do not attempt to perpetuate the results of its lessons in their memories and their practice, there is little that Unesco can do by way of follow-up activity.

Those participants who came to the seminar with well-defined and specific problems, which they would face when they returned home, usually gained a fair amount of help which will be evident in the way in which those problems are worked out. A number of other persons set post-seminar tasks for themselves. Some outlined research they wish to do or papers they wish to write. Others determined to introduce new services or materials into their libraries. Several planned to do what they could to extend the professional and public awareness of Unesco. Still others indicated a desire to extend the benefits of the Seminar by describing it through articles or talks to their colleagues or to the general public. Some even projected radio programmes for the latter purpose.

The ground was laid for post-seminar activity while the participants were still at Malmö. The whole idea of a seminar and the specific objectives of this one make it clear that the values do not end when the seminar does. Participants were urged to be specific in stating goals for themselves, to be accomplished when they had returned home. During the final week, an interview was held with each person to inquire concerning his plans and to offer such assistance as Unesco could afford in carrying them out.

Since most of the participants are disposed to consider that they have post-seminar obligations to fulfil, Unesco should be careful to maintain contact with them and give them all possible encouragement. In the course of affairs, some of the participants will be drawn into specific Unesco projects. Such activity is not enough. There should be a deliberate effort to keep the participants aware of what Unesco is doing and to ask them to give support to it in their own countries. There should be continuing correspondence with those who indicated that they would undertake projects asking for brief reports, perhaps for the *Bulletin for Libraries*. Those who undertook writing assignments should be encouraged to complete them. Unesco should use its influence with the editors of various library journals to suggest the names of participants who have particular kinds of competence and who might prepare articles.

The Seminar did not produce any striking new recommendations concerning the international development of libraries nor did it suggest any bold projects for Unesco to take upon its already overloaded back. All of the experience of the Seminar did, however, reaffirm values and endorse emphases which are already under way or projected in plans. There was unanimous agreement, for example, that through international collaboration the libraries of every nation may be improved, that the simple dictates of world democracy demand that those favoured countries which have good library systems have an obligation to help under-developed areas to have comparable services, that the technique of demonstration projects is a sound one, that every means possible should be used to give librarians opportunities to visit and study other communities, that international seminars are of very great value, that it is essential that an international literature of librarianship be developed in order that understanding may be furthered, and that the growth of adult education in desirable ways may be greatly aided by the collaboration of librarians with one another and with those responsible for other agencies of like purpose.

Most particularly, there was a re-affirmation of the belief that adult education is one of the most effective methods of social change and improvement. The sense of personal growth that the participants felt as a result of the seminar gave them both an insight and a faith in the learning process and will lead them in their further professional activities to place a far greater emphasis on the crucial role of the library in adult education.

PART SIX

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE ENTIRE SEMINAR

A central committee consisting of one participant from each group considered the lists of recommendations drafted by the three groups with a view to selecting those few items which appeared to have the greatest significance and the best chance of being put into effect. This master list was studied and adopted unanimously by the Seminar:

The Malmö Seminar records its conviction that public libraries can be, and indeed in some cases are, among the most effective agencies now existing for the continuing education of great masses of the people. The Seminar also recognizes that the great potentialities of public libraries are too seldom realized and that, in most parts of the world, library services to fundamental and adult education are only now beginning, or have not yet begun.

This Seminar therefore recommends to Unesco that its programme be expanded to allow for the promotion of public library development on a much wider front as required by the realities of the situation. To this end it specifically recommends:

1. That a course on library establishment, operation and development should be included in courses organized in fundamental education centres for the training of experts.
2. That, as a follow-up to the present Seminar, regional seminars or conferences of a limited number of librarians and other experts should be organized at intervals to discuss specific topics such as

   Methods of organizing library campaigns
   Rural library service in fundamental education areas
   Special training for fundamental education library service
   Problems of wider library co-operation.
3. That Unesco's fundamental education preliminary surveys and missions should not be launched without the services of a professional librarian who should remain until sufficient professional staff has been trained to carry on and supervise the newly formed libraries.

4. The production of a film demonstrating the best public library practices.
5. The enlargement of the Unesco *Bulletin for Libraries* to include:
   (*a*) Information on material issued by other sections of Unesco which might be used in library programmes of adult education, and
   (*b*) Information of sources of national material available for circulation, internationally, such as exhibitions, films, filmstrips and photographs.
6. That Unesco promote the development of public library adult education programmes for immigrants and displaced persons.

APPENDIX B

LIST OF SEMINAR MEMBERS

PARTICIPANTS

ABEYWICKRAMA, Mr. Don Cyril Godfrey, Librarian, Public Library, Colombo, CEYLON.

ALVAREZ, Miss Blanca, Professor, School of Librarianship, Caracas, VENEZUELA.

ANDREASSEN, Mr. Anders, Chief Librarian, Rjukan, NORWAY.

BAARDSETH, Miss Inger, Chief Librarian, Tonsberg, NORWAY.

BARBET, Mr. André Charles, Bibliothécaire-Directeur, Bibliothèque Centrale de Prêt, Confolens (Charente), FRANCE.

BERNA, Miss Jeanne, Directrice de la Bibliothèque Centrale de Prêt du Haut-Rhin, 13, rue de Turckheim, Colmar (Haut-Rhin), FRANCE.

BERTOGNE, Mr. Michel (accompanied by Mrs. Bertogne), Administrateur à la Préfecture de la Seine, Inspecteur Général des Bibliothèques Municipales de la Ville de Paris, 78, rue Bonaparte, Parie 6e, FRANCE.

BOUYSSI, Mrs. Marcelle, Bibliothécaire en chef de la Bibliothèque Municipale de Marseille et de la Bibliothèque Centrale de Prêt des Bouches-du-Rhône, 2, place A. Carli, Marseille (B. D. R.), FRANCE.

BULLAYYA, Mr. Lankapalli, Office of the Director of Public Instruction, College Road, Madras, INDIA.

DELGADO, Mr. Ernesto, Head, Municipal Libraries of Bogota, Carrera 2 Nº 938, Sur Bogota, COLOMBIA.

EDEBAU, Mr. Frank, Directeur de la Bibliothèque Communale d'Ostende, 545, Chaussée de Nieuport, Ostende, BELGIUM.

EDSTROM, Mr. Wilhelm, County Librarian (Centralbibliotekarie) Stadsbiblioteket, Kristianstad, SWEDEN.

EL DIB, Mr. Badr, Bibliothécaire, Département d'Acquisition, Bibliothèque Générale Universitaire Fouad, Cairo, EGYPT.

FAVRHOLDT, Mr. Bernt, Chief Librarian, County Library of Slagelse, Slagelse Bibliotek, Slagelse, DENMARK.

FERGUSON, Miss Kate, Library Adviser, South East Asia, c/o British Council, 65 Davies Street, London W.1., UNITED KINGDOM.

FERNANDEZ-MORAN, Mr. Humberto, Attaché Culturel, Légations du Venezuela en Suède, Norvège et Danemark, Légation du Venezuela, Blasieholmstorg 11, Stockholm, SWEDEN.

FROKJAER LARSEN, Mr. Asger, Librarian, Kikkenborgvej 37, III, Kolding, DENMARK.

GEYER, Mr. Guido, Library-Director, Municipal Library, Frankfurter Str. 9, Rheydt, GERMANY.

GOBEAUX-THONET, Mrs. Jeanne, Professeur et bibliothécaire en chef de l'Université de Liége, 13, rue Wazon, Liége, BELGIUM.

GOUDSWAARD, Miss Clara M., Director of the Rural Library in the province of Overijssel, Thomas à Kempisstraat 48, Zwolle, NETHERLANDS.

GRANDAMY, Miss Geneviève, Service de l'Éducation des Adultes, Union Internationale des Ligues Féminines Catholiques, 235 *bis*, rue de Vaugirard, Paris 15e, FRANCE.

HOLM, Mrs. Maren, Copenhagen Public Library, Norgesgade, 37, Copenhagen S., DENMARK.

KALIA, Mr. Des Raj, Librarian, Central Institute of Education, Probyn Road, Delhi 8, INDIA.

KALLMOES, Mr. Poul, Chief Librarian, Vaermlandsvej 2, Ronne, DENMARK.

LANGUEDOC, Miss Adèle de Guerry, Librarian, Comité Américain de Secours Civil, 5, rue Coligny, Soissons (Aisne), France. CANADA.

LANDSBERG, Dr. Erika, Bibliotheksrat, Bibliothekar, Lehrinstitut, Cologne, GERMANY.

LATTANZI-DANEU, Mrs. Angela, Surintendante aux Bibliothèques de la Sicile Occidentale, 452 Corso Vitt. Eman., Palermo, ITALY.

LJUNG, Mr. Ragnar, Chief Librarian (Centralbibliotekarie), Karlstad, SWEDEN.

LONG, Dr. Fern, Supervisor, Adult Education Dept., Cleveland Public Library, Cleveland, Ohio, U.S.A.

MUNN, Mr. Ralph (accompanied by Mrs. Munn), Director, Carnegie Library, Pittsburg 13, Pa. U.S.A.

NIELSEN, Miss Karen, Librarian, Gentofte Kommunebibliotek, Oregardsallé 7, Hellerup, DENMARK.

POTTINGER, Mr. Matthew Cecil, Librarian, Scottish Central Library, Dunfermline, Scotland, UNITED KINGDOM.

RISPOLI, Mr. Guido (accompanied by Mrs. Rispoli), Directeur Lycée Classique, Severano 5, Rome, ITALY.

RIVIER, Miss Hélène, Directrice, Bibliothèques Municipales, 16, place de la Madeleine, Genève, SWITZERLAND.

ROTH, Mr. Nils, Chief of Central Library (Centralbibliotekarie), Stadsbiblioteket, Halmstad, SWEDEN.

ROUSSET DE PINA, Mr. Jean, Conservateur de la Bibliothèque Publique de la Régence, 20, Souk El Attarine, Tunis (Tunisie), FRANCE.

SEARLE, Miss Valda, First Assistant, Country Lending Service, Public Library of South Australia, Adelaide, 8, Belsize Grove, London N.W.3. AUSTRALIA.

STABELL, Miss Kaja, Chief Librarian, Fredrikstad Folkebibliotek, Fredrikstad, NORWAY.

STEINBARGER, Mrs. Helen T., Consultant in Adult Education, The Public Library of the District of Columbia, Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

STUDER, Miss Ella, Directrice, Oeffentliche Bibliothek der Pestalozzigesellschaft, Zaehringerstrasse 17, Zürich 1, SWITZERLAND.

SYDNEY, Mr. Edward, Borough Librarian, Central Public Library, High Road, Leyton, London E.10., UNITED KINGDOM.

VAN BELLAIENGH, Mr. Georges, Inspecteur a. i. des Bibliothèques Publiques et des Œuvres d'Éducation Populaire au Ministère de l'Instruction Publique, Professeur et Secrétaire à l'École Provinciale de Bibliothécaires de Bruxelles, 4, rue du Dahlia, Bruxelles 3, BELGIUM.

WIEGERSMA, Miss Alie E., Head Assistant at the Public Library, Prinsengracht 253, Amsterdam C (former address : Vijzelstraat 107), NETHERLANDS.

WILSON, Miss Roberta, County Librarian, Wentworth County Library, Earl Kitchener School, Hamilton, Ontario, CANADA.

ZANETTI, Dr. Juan, Presidente de la Federacion Argentina de Bibliotecas Populares, Rivera Indarte 472, Cordoba, ARGENTINA.

STAFF

BASSET, Miss Simone, Libraries Division, Unesco. FRANCE. Head of Seminar Office.

BENGTSSON, Miss Asta, Seminar Office. SWEDEN. (Bureau du Stage d'Études.) Lönngatan 36 E, Malmö.

CARTER, Mr. Edward J., Head, Libraries Division, Unesco. UNITED KINGDOM.

HAKANSSON, Mrs. Jean, Seminar Office. SWEDEN. Östra Ansgarigatan 95B, Limhamn.

HEINTZE, Miss Ingeborg, Director, Stadsbibliotek, Malmö. SWEDEN. Chairman of Local Arrangements Committee.

HOULE, Dr. Cyril O. (accompanied by Mrs. Houle), Dean, University College, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. U.S.A. Seminar Director and leader of Group I.

LIND, Mr. Lars, Mass Communication Department, Unesco. SWEDEN. Seminar Publicity.

MACRAE, Mr. Lachlan F., Chief Librarian, Public Library of Fort William, Fort William, Ontario. CANADA. Leader of Group II.

O'BRIEN, Mrs. D. L. A., Translator. UNITED KINGDOM. 18, Crompton Court, Brompton Road, London, S.W.3.

ODDON, Miss Yvonne, Bibliothécaire, Musée de l'Homme, Paris. FRANCE. Leader of Group III.

PETERSEN, Mr. Everett N., Head, Public Libraries Section, Unesco. U.S.A.

QUINT, Miss Gunnel, Seminar Office. SWEDEN. Rönneholmsvägen 17, Malmö.

RAVET, Mr. (accompanied by Mrs. Ravet), Chief Seminar Interpreter, Unesco. BELGIQUE.

SKUNCKE, Mrs. Marie-France (accompanied by Mr. Skuncke), Interpreter. SWEDEN. 34, rue de l'Assomption, Paris-16e.

VELAZQUEZ, Mrs. Maria-Teresa (accompanied by Mr. Velazquez), Libraries Division, Unesco. CUBA. Seminar Programme Assistant.

VILLAPLANA, Mr. Antonio Ruiz, Interpreter. U.S.A., c/o American Consulate Geneva.

VISITORS [1]

ALKER, Dr. Hugo, Assistant Librarian, University Library, Vienna, AUSTRIA.
BIANCHINI, Miss Bianca, Librarian of the Military Forces, Stockholm, SWEDEN.
DÜRING, Professor Ingemar, Chairman of the Swedish National Unesco Committee, Gothenburg, SWEDEN.
HANSEN, Mr. Robert L., Library Director, The Library Inspectorate of the State, Copenhagen, DENMARK.
HILL, Miss Rosemary, Librarian of the British Council, Stockholm, SWEDEN.
HJELMQVIST, Mr. Bengt, First Library Advisor, Board of Education, Stockholm, SWEDEN.
KRISTOFFERSEN, Mr. Magnus K., Director, Hartford Public Library, Hartford, Connecticut, UNITED STATES.
LAURITZEN, Mr. Bertil, Director of the School Film Department, Swedish Film Industry, Stockholm, SWEDEN.
MANRIQUE, Mr. Aurelio, Envoyé Extraordinaire et Ministre Plénipotentiaire du Mexique, Oslo, NORWAY.
RAMQVIST, Miss Ingrid, Librarian, Technical and Commercial Department, Malmö Stadsbibliotek, Malmö, SWEDEN.
ROSBERG, Mr. Erik, Branch librarian, Malmö Stadsbibliotek, Malmo, SWEDEN.
SJÖGREEN, Miss Märta, Assistant librarian, Malmö Stadsbibliotek, Malmö, SWEDEN.
SPOFFORD, Miss Dorothy, Librarian, United States Information Service, American Embassy, Stockholm, SWEDEN.
WALLIN, Miss Viola, Librarian, County Library Department, Malmö Stadsbibliotek, Malmö, SWEDEN.
WIDEMAR, Mrs. Ingrid Gärde, Representative of the Swedish Unesco Committee, Stockholm, SWEDEN.

1. The persons named in this list are those who were present at several sessions of the Seminar. The many visitors to individual sessions and ceremonial occasions are not included.

APPENDIX C

SCHEDULE OF SPECIAL ACTIVITIES

July 22-23

Registration of Seminar participants in the Lounge Room, third floor, Stadsbibliotek.

July 24

10.00 a.m. First Plenary Session. Meeting room, Stadsbibliotek.

Chairman, Miss Ingeborg Heintze, Librarian, Malmö Stadsbibliotek.

Swedish songs by members of the Choir of the Malmö Tramways and of the Choir of Lyran; Olof Hult directing.

Welcoming addresses :

Mr. Arthur Thomson, Governor of the County of Malmöhus.

Mrs. Ingrid Gärde Widemar, Representative of the Swedish National Unesco Committee.

Mr. Bengt Hjelmqvist, First Library Advisor, Board of Education, Sweden.

Response by Cyril O. Houle, Director of the Seminar.

Message from Mr. Jaime Torres Bodet, Director-General of Unesco, delivered by Mr. Edward J. Carter, Head, Libraries Division, Unesco.

2.30 p.m. Second Plenary Session, Meeting room, Stadsbibliotek.

Chairman, Mr. Houle.

Addresses on the Goals and Programme of Unesco:

Mr. Carter,

Mr. E. N. Petersen, Head, Public Libraries Section, Unesco,

Miss Yvonne Oddon, Librarian, Musée de l'Homme, Paris; leader of Group III.

5.00 p.m. Reception in honour of Unesco personnel given by the Director of the Seminar and Mrs. Houle.

July 25

9.30 a.m. Third Plenary Session. Meeting room, Stadsbibliotek.

Chairman, Mr. Michel Bertogne, Administrateur à la Préfecture de la Seine, Inspecteur Général des Bibliothèques Municipales de la Ville de Paris, France.

"Adult Education as a Function of the Library." Address by Mr. Houle.
Afternoon. Tours of the Stadsbibliotek.

July 26

12.30 p.m. Luncheon in honour of Seminar staff and participants given by the City of Malmö, Riddarsalen, Malmöhus Museum, Mr. S. A. Johansson, Chairman of the City Council, presiding.

July 27

9.30 a.m. Fourth Plenary Session. Meeting room, Stadsbibliotek.
Chairman, Mr. Edward Sydney, Borough Librarian, Central Public Library, Leyton, England.
"The Establishment of Library Services as an Aid to Adult Education in Under-developed Regions"—An address by Miss Oddon.

July 28

9.30 a.m. Fifth Plenary Session. Meeting room, Stadsbibliotek.
Chairman, Mr. Anders Andreassen, Chief Librarian, Rjukan, Norway.
"The Library as a Centre for the Use by Adults of all Communication Media"—Address by Mr. L. F. MacRae, Chief Librarian, Public Library, Fort William, Canada, leader of Group II.

August 1

9.30 a.m. Sixth Plenary Session. Meeting room, Stadsbibliotek.
Chairman, Mr. Georges Van Bellaiengh, Inspecteur a. i. des Bibliothèques Publiques et des Œuvres d'Éducation Populaire au Ministère de l'Instruction Publique. Professeur et Secrétaire à l'École Provinciale de Bibliothécaires de Bruxelles, Belgique.
Committee reports.
Announcements.
General discussion.

August 8

2.00 p.m. Seventh Plenary Session. Meeting room, Stadsbibliotek.
Chairman, Miss Ella Studer, Directrice, Oeffentliche Bibliothek der Pestalozzigesellschaft, Zurich, Switzerland.
Films on library development from various countries.

August 9 Tour of the Province of Scania provided by the Swedish National Unesco Committee.

August 10

7.30 p.m. Visit to Malmö Branch Library. Entertainment and reception provided by the staff of the Malmö Stadsbibliotek.

August 14 Tour demonstrating adult educational resources of Copenhagen, Denmark.

August 15

4.30 p.m. Reception in honour of Seminar staff and participants given by Mr. Thomas Munck af Rosenschöld, Burgomaster of Malmö, and his wife.

August 17

9.30 a.m. Eighth Plenary Session. Meeting room, Stadsbibliotek.
Chairman, Mr. Ralph Munn, Director, Carnegie Library; Dean, Library School, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, United States.
Report of Group I to the entire Seminar.

August 18

9.30 a.m. Ninth Plenary Session, Meeting room, Stadsbibliotek.
Chairman, Mrs. Jeanne Gobeaux-Thonet, Professeur et Bibliothécaire en Chef de l'Université de Liége, Belgique.
Report of Group II to the entire Seminar.

2.00 p.m. Tenth Plenary Session, Meeting room, Stadsbibliotek.
Chairman, Miss Alie E. Wiegersma, Head Assistant at the Public Library, Amsterdam, the Netherlands.
Report of Group III to the entire Seminar.

August 19

10.00 a.m. Eleventh Plenary Session, Meeting room, Stadsbibliotek.
Chairman, Mr. Sydney.
Report of the Committee on Recommendations.
Report of the Committee on Resolutions.

All other periods of Seminar activity were devoted to group, committee, and individual work.

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Periodica Inc., Centre de Publications Internationales, 4234 rue de la Roche, Montreal 34; **CEYLON :** Lake House Bookshop, The Associated Newspapers of Ceylon Ltd., Colombo I; **CHILE :** Librería Lope de Vega, Moneda 924, Santiago de Chile; **COLOMBIA :** Emilio Royo Martin, Carrera 9a, No. 1791, Bogota; **COSTA RICA :** Trejos Hermanos, Apartado 1313, San Jose; **CUBA :** Unesco Centro Regional en el Hemisfero Occidental, Calle 5 No. 306 Vedado. Apartado 1350, Havana; **CYPRUS :** M. E. Constantinides, P.O. Box 473, Nicosia; **CZECHOSLOVAKIA :** Artia Ltd, 30 Ve směckách, Prague, 2; **DENMARK :** Ejnar Munksgaard Ltd., 6 Norregade, Copenhagen K; **ECUADOR :** Casa de la Cultura Ecuatoriana, ave. 6 de Diciembre, Quito; **EGYPT :** La Renaissance d'Egypte, 9 Adly Pasha Street, Cairo; **FINLAND :** Akateeminen Kirjakauppa, 2 Keskuskatu, Helsinki; **FORMOSA :** The World Book Co. 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